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A
MAP
(of the STATES of)
VIRGINIA, NORTH CAROLINA,
SOUTH CAROLINA AND GEORGIA;
Comprehending the SPANISH PROVINCES of
EAST AND WEST FLORIDA:
Exhibiting the Boundaries
as fixed by the late Treaty of Peace between the
UNITED STATES and the SPANISH DOMINIONS.
Compiled from late Surveys & Observations
by
Joseph Purcell.
Taylor Sculpt. Donnybrook near Dublin
EXPLANATION
The boundary between the United States and Spanish Dominions
Divisional lines between each state
Lines limiting the territory claimed by each Indian Nation
Roads
Towns
Indian Towns and Villages
Scale of Miles 69½ to a Degree
NEW STATES
VIRGINIA
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
GEORGIA
WEST FLORIDA
EAST FLORIDA
LOUISIANA
SPANISH DOS
MARYLAND
OHIO COMPANY
KENTUCKY
CHEROKEES
CREEK
MUSKOGEEN
SEMINOLIS COUNTRY
APPALACHICOLA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
GULF STREAM
GULF OF FLORIDA or NEW BAHAMA CHANNEL
Mouths of the Mississippi
Long Wolt from London
Phil. Meridian
Engraved for Morse's Geography Published by John Jones July 25th 1792

Richd Boycott

THE

AMERICAN

GEOGRAPHY;

OR,

A VIEW OF THE PRESENT SITUATION

OF THE

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA:

CONTAINING

Aſtronomical Geography —— Geographical Definitions, Diſcovery, and General Deſcription of AMERICA and the UNITED STATES: — Of their Boundaries; Mountains; Lakes; Bays and Rivers; Natural Hiſtory; Productions; Population; Government; Agriculture; Commerce; Manufactures; and Hiſtory. — A conciſe Account of the War, and of the important Events which have ſucceeded.

WITH A PARTICULAR DESCRIPTION OF

KENTUCKY, THE WESTERN TERRITORY, and VERMONT. — Of their Extent; Civil Diviſions; Chief Towns; Climates; Soils; Trade; Character; Conſtitutions; Courts of Juſtice; Colleges; Academies; Religion; Iſlands; Indians; Literary and Humane Societies; Springs; Curioſities; Hiſtories; &c.

TO WHICH IS ADDED,

An Abridgment of the Geography of the BRITISH, SPANISH, FRENCH, and DUTCH Dominions in AMERICA and the WEST-INDIES. ——— Of EUROPE, ASIA, and AFRICA.

BY JEDIDIAH MORSE.

ILLUSTRATED WITH TWO SHEET MAPS — ONE OF THE SOUTHERN, THE OTHER OF THE NORTHERN STATES.—FROM THE LATEST SURVEYS.

THIRD EDITION.

DUBLIN:

PRINTED FOR JOHN JONES, NO. 111, GRAFTON-STREET, OPPOSITE THE COLLEGE.

M.DC.CXCII.

PREFACE.

SO imperfect are all accounts of AMERICA hitherto publiſhed, even by thoſe who once excluſively poſſeſſed the beſt means of information, that from them very little knowledge of this country can be acquired. Europeans have been the ſole writers of American Geography, and have too often ſuffered fancy to ſupply the place of facts, and thus have led their readers into errors, while they profeſſed to aim at removing their ignorance. But ſince the United States have become an independent nation, and have riſen into Empire, it would be reproachful for them to ſuffer this ignorance to continue; and the reſt of the world have a right now to expect authentic information. To furniſh this has been the deſign of the author of the following work; but he does not pretend that this deſign is compleated, nor will the judicious and

candid expect it, when they conſider that he has trodden, comparatively, an unbeaten path—that he has had to collect a vaſt variety of materials—that theſe have been widely ſcattered—and that he could derive but little aſſiſtance from books already publiſhed. Four years have been employed in this work, during which period, the Author has viſited the ſeveral ſtates in the Union, and maintained an extenſive correſpondence with men of Science; and in every inſtance has endeavoured to derive his information from the moſt authentic ſources: he has alſo ſubmitted his manuſcripts to the inſpection of Gentlemen in the ſtates which they particularly deſcribed, for their correction. It is poſſible, notwithſtanding, and indeed very probable, that inaccuracies may have crept in; but he hopes there are none of any great importance, and that ſuch as may be obſerved, will not be made the ſubject of ſevere cenſure, but aſcribed to ſome pardonable cauſe. He flatters himſelf, however, that the work now offered to the public, will be found to be as accurate, complete, and impartial, as the preſent ſtate of American Geography and Hiſtory could furniſh. After all, like the nation of which it treats, it is but an infant, and as ſuch ſolicits the foſtering care of the country it deſcribes; it will grow and improve as the nation advances towards maturity, and the Author will gratefully acknowledge every friendly communication which will tend to make it perfect.

In

In the profecution of the work, he has aimed at utility rather than originality, and of courfe, when he has met with publications fuited to his purpofe, he has made a free ufe of them; and he thinks it proper here to obferve, that, to avoid unneceffary trouble, he has frequently ufed the words as well as the ideas of the writers, although the reader has not been particularly apprized of it.

For the Author diftinctly to acknowledge the obligations he is under to many citizens of thefe ftates, as well as to fome foreigners of diftinction, refidents among us, would fwell this preface to an improper length; he cannot forbear, however, to expreſs his peculiar obligation to EBENEZER HAZARD, ESQ. Poft-Maſter-General of the United States, for permiſſion of free acceſs to his very large and valuable *Collection* of papers, from which he has derived much of his hiſtorical information. This collection has been made with unwearied care and minute exactneſs; and the papers, which are of unqueſtionable authenticity, are the beſt, and moſt complete *depoſitum* of facts relating to the hiſtory of America from its firſt ſettlement, that is to be found in the United States. The Author's acknowledgements are likewiſe eſpecially due to Captain THOMAS HUTCHINS, Geographer-General of the United States, for his particular friendſhip and aſſiſtance.

It is to be regretted, that ſo few Maps could be introduced into the work; but the Author hopes to be enabled to encreaſe the number in future Editions. The Map of the Southern States, was compiled from original and authentic documents, by Mr. JOSEPH PURCELL, of *Charleſton, South Carolina*, a Gentleman fully equal to the undertaking, and is the moſt accurate yet publiſhed reſpecting that country, on ſo ſmall a ſcale. The Map of the Northern States was compiled principally by the Engraver, from the beſt Maps that could be procured; it was chiefly deſigned to give the reader an idea of the relative ſituation, and comparative extent of the ſeveral ſtates and countries comprehended within its limits.

Indian names of rivers, &c. are ſpelled as they are pronounced, for the ſake of expunging ſuperfluous letters, and preventing perſons unacquainted with the names from miſtaking their true pronunciation.

The meridian which paſſes through Philadelphia is fixed, in this work, as the firſt, becauſe of the ſize, the beauty, the improvements, and the central ſituation of that city.

The *Abridgment* of Europe, Aſia, and Africa, is added with a view to accommodate Schools and private Families. Every citizen ought to be thoroughly acquainted

acquainted with the geography of his own country, and to have ſome idea, at leaſt, of the other parts of the world; but as many of them cannot afford the time and expence neceſſary to acquire a complete knowledge of the ſeveral parts of the Globe, this book offers them ſuch information as their ſituation in life may require; and while it is calculated early to impreſs the minds of Youth with an idea of the ſuperior importance of their own country, as well as to attach them to its intereſts, it furniſhes a ſimplified account of other countries, calculated to their capacities, and will ſerve as an introduction to their future improvement in Geography.

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The MAP of the Southern States to front the TITLE.
The MAP of Northern States, page 33.
TABLE of Diſtances between the principal Towns in America to be placed at the end of the work.

INTRO-

INTRODUCTION.

Of ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY.

A COMPLETE knowledge of *Geography*, cannot be obtained without ſome acquaintance with Aſtronomy. This Compendium, therefore, will be introduced with a ſhort account of that Science.

Aſtronomy * treats of the heavenly bodies, and explains their motions, times, diſtances and magnitudes. The regularity and beauty of theſe, and the harmonious order in which they move, ſhew that their Creator and Preſerver poſſeſſes infinite wiſdom and power.

Aſtronomy was firſt attended to by the Shepherds, on the beautiful plains of Egypt and Babylon. Their employment led them to contemplate the ſtars. While their flocks, in the ſilence of the evening, were enjoying ſweet repoſe, the ſpangled ſky would naturally invite the attention of the Shepherds. The obſervation of the heavenly bodies afforded them amuſement, and at the ſame time aſſiſted them in travelling in the night. A ſtar guided the Shepherds to the manger where our bleſſed Saviour was born. By the aid of a lively imagination, they diſtributed the ſtars into a number of conſtellations or companies, to which they gave the names of the animals which they repreſented.

Of the Planets.] The ſun is ſurrounded with ſeven ſpherical, opaque bodies, called *Planets* or wandering ſtars, which revolve about him as their centre at different diſtances, and in different periods, as exhibited in the following

TABLE.

Sun and Planets.	Diameters in Eng. miles	Diſtance from the Sun.	Annual periods round the Sun.	Square miles in ſurface.
				†
Sun ☉	890,000		y. d. h.	1,828,911,000,000
Mercury ☿	3,000	36,841,468	0 87 23	21,236,800
Venus ♀	9,330	68,891,486	0 224 17	691,361,300
Earth ⊙	7,970	95,173,000	1 0 0	199,859,860
Mars ♂	5,400	145,014,148	1 321 17	62,038,240
Jupiter ♃	94,000	494,990,976	11 314 18	20,603,970,000
Saturn ♄	78,000	907,956,130	29 174 0	14,102,562,000
Herſchel	36,000	1800,000,000	82 34 0	7,577,496,000

* *From* aſtron, *a ſtar; and* nomos, *the law or rule.*

† *Theſe ſquare miles are as computed by ancient aſtronomers.*

The *seven* planets mentioned in the table are called *primary planets;* for besides these there are ten other bodies called *secondary planets*, *moons*, or *satellites*, which all revolve round their primaries from west to east, and at the same time are carried along with them round the sun, as follows:

The earth has one satellite, viz. the moon ☽, which performs her revolution in 29d. 12h. 44m. at the distance of about 60 semidiameters of the earth, or 209,100 miles, and is carried with the earth round the sun once in a year.

Jupiter has four moons; Saturn has five, and is also encompassed with a broad ring. The diameter of the ring is to the diameter of Saturn, as 9 to 4, and the space between the body of Saturn and the ring, is equal to the breadth of the ring.

The motion of the primary planets round the sun, and also the motion of the satellites round their primaries, are called their *annual motions*. Besides this annual motion, they revolve round their own axes from west to east, and this is called their *diurnal motion*.

The lately discovered planet *Herschel*, was first observed in 1782, by that celebrated astronomer William Herschel, LL.D. F. R. S. In Great-Britain, it is called *Georgium Sidus;* but in France and America it has obtained the name of *Herschel*, in honour to its learned discoverer.

Comets.] The comets are large opaque bodies, which move in very elliptical orbits, and in all possible directions. Some revolve from west to east; some from east to west; others from south to north; or from north to south. Their orbits have very different inclinations to the ecliptic. Some have conjectured, that the comets were intended by the All-wise Creator, to connect systems, and that each of their several orbits includes the sun, and one of the fixed stars. The figures of the comets are very different. Some of them emit beams on all sides like hair, and are called hairy comets. Others have a long, fiery, transparent tail, projecting from the part which is opposite to the sun. Their magnitudes also are different. Some appear no bigger than stars of the first magnitude; others larger than the moon. They are supposed to be solid bodies, and very dense; for some of them in their nearest approach to the sun, were heated, according to Sir Isaac Newton's calculation, 2000 times hotter than red hot iron; a degree of heat which would vitrify, or dissipate any matter known to us.

The number of comets belonging to our system is not certainly known. Twenty-one have been seen. Of these, the periods of three only have been ascertained with accuracy. One appeared in the years 1531, 1607, 1682, and 1758; its period is 75 years. Another was seen in 1532 and 1661. The third appeared last in 1680, whose period being 575 years, cannot be expected to return until the year 2255.

Of the Solar-System.] The seven planets, with their ten satellites and the comets, constitute the Solar, or as it is sometimes called, the Copernican System, in honour of Copernicus, a native of Poland, who adopted the Pythagorean opinion of the heavenly bodies, and published it to the world in 1530. This is now universally approved as the true system. It has received great improvements from Gallileo, Sir Isaac Newton, Dr. Halley, and other philosophers in almost every age.

Of

Of the fixed Stars.] The ſolar ſyſtem is ſurrounded with the fixed ſtars; ſo called, becauſe they at all times preſerve the ſame ſituation in regard to each other. Theſe ſtars, when viewed with the beſt teleſcopes, appear no larger than points, which proves that they are at an immenſe diſtance from us. Although their diſtance is not certainly known, yet it is the general opinion of aſtronomers, that they are at leaſt 100,000 times farther from us, than we are from the ſun; and that our ſun viewed from a fixed ſtar, would appear no bigger than a ſtar does to us. A ſound would not reach us from *Sirius*, or the dog-ſtar, which is nearer to this earth than any of the fixed ſtars, in 50,000 years. A cannon ball flying at the rate of 480 miles an hour, would not reach us in 700,000 years. Light, which is tranſmitted from one body to another almoſt inſtantaneouſly, takes up more time in paſſing from the fixed ſtars to this earth, than we do in making a voyage to Europe; ſo that if all the fixed ſtars were now ſtruck out of exiſtence, they would appear to us to keep their ſtations for ſeveral months yet to come. It is impoſſible, therefore, that they ſhould borrow their light from the ſun, as do the planets.

The number of ſtars, viſible to the naked eye at any one time, in the upper hemiſphere, is not more than a thouſand. A thouſand more are ſuppoſed to be viſible in the lower hemiſphere; and by the help of a teleſcope, a thouſand more have been diſcovered; ſo that the whole number of ſtars are reckoned at 3000. They are diſtinguiſhed from the planets by their twinkling.

To conſider theſe ſtars deſigned merely to decorate the ſky, and form a rich and beautiful canopy for this earth, would be derogatory to the wiſdom of the Creator. Aſtronomers therefore, with much reaſon, have conſidered the fixed ſtars as ſo many ſuns, attended with a number of revolving planets, which they illuminate, warm and cheriſh. If this be true, there are as many ſyſtems, as there are fixed ſtars. Theſe may alſo revolve round one common centre, forming one immenſe ſyſtem of ſyſtems. All theſe ſyſtems, we may conceive, are filled with inhabitants ſuited to their reſpective climes; and are ſo many theatres, on which the Great Creator and Governor of the Univerſe diſplays his infinite power, wiſdom and goodneſs.—Such a view of the ſtarry heavens muſt fill the mind of every beholder, with ſublime, magnificent, and glorious ideas of the Creator.

Of the EARTH.

HAVING taken a curſory view of the heavenly bodies, we proceed to give a more particular account of the planet which we inhabit.

The Earth, though called a globe, is not perfectly round, but is widened at the equator, and flattened at the poles; ſo that its diameter from eaſt to weſt, is about thirty miles longer than from north to ſouth. Its figure is an oblate ſpheroid. It moves round the ſun once in a year. This is called the earth's *annual* motion, to which we are indebted for the difference in the length of the days and nights, and for the variety in the ſeaſons. The diameter of the earth's orbit, is 190,346,000 miles. And ſince the circumference of a circle, is to its diameter, as 355 is to 113, the circumference of the earth's orbit is 597,987,646 miles. And as the earth de-

ſcribes this orbit in 365 days and 6 hours, (or in 8766 hours,) it is plain that it travels at the rate of 68,217 miles every hour; ſo that its velocity in its orbit is at leaſt 142 times as great as the velocity of a cannon-ball, ſuppoſing the ball to move through eight miles in a minute, which it is found to do nearly. At this rate it would take 22 years and 228 days for a cannon ball to go from this earth to the ſun.

The earth is 25,038 miles in circumference; and by turning on its axis once in twenty-four hours from weſt to eaſt, cauſes a continual ſucceſſion of day and night, according as either ſide is turned to or from the ſun; and occaſions an apparent motion of the ſun and heavenly bodies from eaſt to weſt. This is called the earth's *diurnal*, or daily motion, by which the inhabitants on the equator are carried 1040 miles every hour.

That the earth is round like a globe is evident: *Firſt*, From its having been circumnavigated, or ſailed round by Magellan, Sir Francis Drake, Lord Anſon, Captain Cook and others*. *Secondly*, From its ſhadow in eclipſes of the moon, which ſhadow is bounded by a circular line.

As the earth is round and habitable on all ſides, it will doubtleſs appear ſtrange, that perſons can ſtand directly oppoſite to us on the under ſide.

* Magellan *ſailed from Seville in Spain, under the auſpices of Charles V. 10th of Auguſt*, 1519; *and having diſcovered the Magellanic Streights in South America, he croſſed the Pacific Ocean, and arrived at the Philippine Iſlands where he was poiſoned. His ſhip returned by way of the Cape of Good Hope, 8th of September* 1522.

Sir Francis Drake *ſailed from Plymouth, 13th December* 1577—*entered the Pacific Ocean, and ſteering round America, returned November 3d*, 1580 *He was a man of great generoſity. The booty which he took, and even the wedges of gold given him in return for his preſents to Indian chiefs, he divided in juſt proportional ſhares with the common ſailors.*

Thomas Cavendiſh *ſailed from Plymouth, with two ſmall ſhips, the 1ſt of Auguſt*, 1586—*paſſed through the Streights of Magellan—took many rich prizes along the coaſts of Chili and Peru; and near California poſſeſſed himſelf of the St. Anna Acapulco ſhip, with a cargo of immenſe value. He completed the circumnavigation of the globe the 9th of September*, 1588.

Between the years 1598 *and* 1626, Oliver de Nort, *of Utrecht*, James Mahu, George Spillenberger, *a Fleming*, William Schouten, *a Hollander, and* James the Hermit, *ſucceſſively ſailed round the globe.*

Lord Anſon *ſailed in September*, 1740—*doubled Cape Horn in a dangerous ſeaſon—loſt moſt of his men by the ſcurvy, and with only one remaining ſhip, (the Centurion,) croſſed the Great Pacific Ocean, which is* 10,000 *miles over — took a Spaniſh galleon, on her paſſage from Acapulco to Manilla, and returned home in June* 1744.

Biron—Bouganville, *a Frenchman*—Wallis *and* Carteret, *ſucceſſively circumnavigated the globe, between the years* 1764 *and* 1769.

Captain Cook, *in the ſhip Endeavour, ſailed from Plymouth the 26th of Auguſt*, 1768, *and after a moſt ſatisfactory voyage, returned the 12th of June*, 1771. *He ſet out on a ſecond voyage the 14th of February*, 1776—*made many important diſcoveries, and was killed on the iſland of Owhyhee by the natives, the 14th of February*, 1779. *His ſhips under the command of Captain Clerk, returned the 16th of October*, 1780.

But this will eaſily be conceived, when it is conſidered that the earth attracts all bodies, on or near its ſurface, towards its centre equally on all ſides. If ſo, the people who are oppoſite to us ſtand juſt as firm as we do.

It is now ten o'clock in the morning, and we think we are ſtanding upright on the upper part of the earth.—We ſhall think the ſame at ten o'clock this evening, when the earth ſhall have turned half round, becauſe we ſhall then perceive no difference of poſture. We ſhall then be exactly in the poſition of thoſe perſons who now ſtand on the oppoſite ſide of the earth. Since they are as ſtrongly attracted towards the centre of the earth as we are, they can be in no more danger of falling downward, than we are at preſent of falling upwards.

ARTIFICIAL GLOBE.

AN artificial globe is a round body, whoſe ſurface is every where equally remote from the centre; and on which the external form of our habitable world is repreſented, and all the parts of the earth and water are deſcribed in their natural order, form, diſtance and ſituation.

In order to determine the ſituation of places on the globe, it is ſuppoſed to be circumſcribed by ſeveral imaginary circles. Each circle is divided into 360 equal parts, called degrees; each degree is divided into 60 minutes, and each minute into 60 ſeconds.

Axis of the Earth.] The axis of the earth is an imaginary line paſſing through its centre from north to ſouth. The extreme points of the axis are called the poles.

Circles.] A circle paſſing through the centre of a globe, and thereby dividing it into two equal parts or hemiſpheres, is called a *great circle*. Of theſe there are ſix.—The equator, the meridian, the ecliptic, the horizon, and two colures.

Circles dividing the ſphere into unequal parts, are called *ſmall or leſſer circles*, of which there are four, the two tropics, and the two polar circles.

Equator.] The equator is that line or circle which encompaſſes the middle of the earth, dividing the northern half from the ſouthern. This line is often called the *equinoctial*, becauſe, when the ſun appears therein, the days and nights are equal in all parts of the world.—From this line latitude is reckoned.

Meridian.] This circle is repreſented on the artificial globe by a braſs ring, and is divided into 360 degrees. It paſſes through the poles of the earth, and the *zenith*, and the *nadir*, croſſing the equator at right angles, and dividing the globe into eaſtern and weſtern hemiſpheres. It is called *meridian* from the Latin *meridies*, *mid-day*; becauſe when the ſun comes to the ſouth part of this circle it is called noon, and the day is half ſpent. There are an infinite number of meridians, which vary as you travel eaſt or weſt. Geographers aſſume one of the meridians for the *firſt*; commonly that which paſſes through the metropolis of their own country. The meridian of Philadelphia is the firſt for Americans; that of London for the Engliſh; and that of Paris for the French.

Ecliptic.]

Ecliptic.] The ecliptic is a great circle, in whose plane the earth performs her annual revolution round the sun; or in which the sun, seems to move round the earth once in a year. This circle is called the *Ecliptic*, from the word *Eclipse*, because no eclipse of the sun or moon happens, but when the moon is in or near the plane of this circle. It makes an angle with the equator of 23° 30′, and intersects it in two opposite parts called the *equinoctial points*, because when the sun is in either of these points he has no declination, and shines equally to both poles, and the day is then equal to the night all over the world. The times when the sun passes through these points, are the 21st of March, and the 21st of September: the former is called the *vernal*, the latter the *autumnal* equinox.

The ecliptic is divided into twelve equal parts, of thirty degrees each, called signs. These begin at the vernal intersection of the ecliptic with the equator, and are numbered from west to east. The names and characters of the signs, with the months in which the sun enters them, are as follow:

Latin names of the signs.	English names.	Characters.	Months in which the sun enters them.
1 Aries	The Ram	♈	March
2 Taurus	The Bull	♉	April
3 Gemini	The Twins	♊	May
4 Cancer	The Crab	♋	June
5 Leo	The Lion	♌	July
6 Virgo	The Virgin	♍	August
7 Libra	The Scales	♎	September
8 Scorpio	The Scorpion	♏	October
9 Sagittarius	The Archer	♐	November
10 Capricornus	The Goat	♑	December
11 Aquarius	The Water-Bearer	♒	January
12 Pisces	The Fishes	♓	February

Zodiac.] If two circles were drawn parallel to the ecliptic, at the distance of eight degrees on each side of it, the space, or girdle included between these two parallels, sixteen degrees broad, and divided in the middle by the ecliptic, will comprehend within it the orbits of all the planets, and is called the *Zodiac*.

Horizon.] The horizon is represented on the artificial globe by a broad wooden circle, dividing it into upper and lower hemispheres. There are, geographically speaking, two horizons, the *sensible* and the *rational*. The sensible horizon is that circle which limits our prospect; where the sky and the land and water appear to meet. The rational or real horizon, is a circle whose plane passes through the centre of the earth, dividing it into upper and lower hemispheres.

The horizon is divided into four quarters, and each quarter into 90 degrees. The four quartering points, viz. east, west, north, and south, are called the *Cardinal points*. The poles of the horizon are the zenith and the nadir. The former is the point directly over our heads; the latter the point directly under our feet.

Colures.] The colures are two meridian lines which divide the globe into four quarters. They are called *colures*, to distinguish them from other

other meridians. They both pass through the poles of the world, and one of them through the equinoctial points Aries and Libra; the other through the solstitial points Capricorn and Cancer: The former is called the equinoctial, the latter the solstitial colure.

Tropics.] The tropics are two circles drawn parallel to the equator, at the distance of 23° 30′ on each side of it. These circles form the limits of the ecliptic, or the sun's declination from the equator. That which is in the northern hemisphere, is called the tropic of Cancer; because it touches the ecliptic in the sign Cancer; and that in the southern hemisphere, is called the tropic of Capricorn, because it touches the ecliptic in the sign Capricorn. On the 21st of June the sun is in Cancer, and we have the longest day. On the 21st of December the sun is in Capricorn, and we have the shortest day. They are called *tropics*, from the Greek word TREPŎ, *to turn*, because when the sun arrives at them, he returns again to the equator.

Polar Circles.] The two polar circles are described round the poles of the earth, at the distance of 23° 30′. The *northern* is called the *Arctic circle*, from *Arctos*, or the bear, a constellation situated near that place in the heavens; the *southern*, being opposite to the former, is called the *Antarctic circle.*—The polar circles bound the places where the sun sets daily. Beyond them the sun revolves without setting.

Zones.] The tropics and polar circles divide the globe into five parts, called *Zones*, or *Belts*; viz. One torrid, two temperate, and two frigid zones.

The *Torrid Zone*, 47 degrees broad, is bounded by the tropics, and divided in the middle by the equator. It is called the torrid or burning zone, because the sun, being always over some part of it, makes it extremely hot.

Each of the *Temperate Zones* is 43 degrees in breadth. The one which lies between the tropic of Cancer and the arctic circle, is called the north temperate zone; and the other, lying between the tropic of Capricorn and the antarctic circle, is called the south temperate zone. The mildness of the weather in these spaces, which are between the extremes of heat and cold, has acquired to them the name of *temperate zones.*

The two *Frigid Zones*, so called on account of the extreme cold of those regions, are included between the polar circles and the poles. Each of them is 23° 30′ broad.

Climates.] By a number of other circles, drawn parallel to the equator, the earth is divided into climates.

A *Climate* is a tract of the earth's surface, included between the equator and a parallel of latitude, or between two parallels of such a breadth, as that the length of the day in the one, be half an hour longer than in the other. Within the polar circles, however, the breadth of a circle is such, that the length of a day, or the time of the sun's continuance above the horizon without setting, is a month longer in one parallel, as you proceed northerly, than in the other.

Under the equator, the day is always twelve hours long. The days gradually increase in length as you advance either north or south from the equator. The space between the equator, and a parallel line drawn at the distance of 8° 25′ where the days are twelve hours and a half long, is called the first climate; and by conceiving parallels drawn in this manner, at the increase of every half hour, it will be found that there

are

are twenty-four climates between the equator and each of the polar circles.—Forty-eight in the whole.

Under the polar circles, the longeſt day is twenty-four hours. The ſun, when at the tropics, ſkims the horizon without ſetting. As you advance from the polar circles to the poles, the ſun continues above the horizon for days, weeks and months, in a conſtant increaſe until you arrive at the poles, where the ſun is ſix months above the horizon; and the whole year may be ſaid to conſiſt of but one day and one night.

There are thirty climates between the equator and either pole. In the firſt twenty-four, between the equator and each polar circle, the period of increaſe for every climate, is half an hour. In the other ſix between the polar circles and either pole, the period of increaſe for each climate is a month. Theſe climates continually decreaſe in breadth as you proceed from the equator, as may be ſeen by attending to the following table.

TABLE.

Climates.	Longeſt day.	Latitudes in which the reſpective climates begin and end.		Names of countries and remarkable places ſituated in the reſpective climates, north of the equator.
		d.	m.	Within the firſt climate lie,
1	12½	8	25	1 The Gold coaſt in Africa, Cayenne and Surinam in S. Amer.
2	13	16	25	2 Abyſſinia, Siam, Madras, Darien, Barbadoes.
3	13½	23	50	3 Mecca, Bengal, Canton, Mexico, Jamaica, Gaudelupe.
4	14	30	25	4 Egypt, Delhi, Canary Iſles, E. Florida, Havanna.
5	14½	36	28	5 Gibraltar, Jeruſalem, Nanking, Georgia, and Carolinas.
6	15	41	22	6 Liſbon, Madrid, Aſia-Minor, Virginia, Maryland, Philadel.
7	15½	45	29	7 Rome, Conſtantinople, Caſpian Sea, New-England.
8	16	49	01	8 Paris, Vienna, Nova-Scotia, Newfoundland, Canada.
9	16½	52	00	9 London, Flanders, Prague, Dreſden, Cracow.
10	17	54	27	10 Dublin, Warſaw, Holland, Hanover, Labrador.
11	17½	56	37	11 Edinburgh, Copenhagen, Moſcow.
12	18	58	29	12 South part of Sweden, Siberia.
13	18½	59	58	13 Orkney Iſles, Stockholm.
14	19	61	18	14 Bergen in Norway, Peterſburgh in Ruſſia.
15	19½	62	25	15 Hudſon's Straits.
16	20	63	22	16 South Part of Weſt Greenland.
17	20½	64	06	17 Drontheim in Norway.
18	21	64	49	18 Part of Finland in Ruſſia.
19	21½	65	21	19 Archangel on the White Sea, Ruſſia.
20	22	65	47	20 Hecla in Iceland.
21	22½	66	06	21 Northern Parts of Ruſſia and Siberia.
22	23	66	20	22 New-North-Wales in N. America.
23	23½	66	28	23 Davis's Straits in ditto.
24	24	66	31	24 Samoieda.
25	1 month	67	21	25 South Part of Lapland.
26	2 do.	69	48	26 Weſt Greenland.
27	3 do.	73	37	27 Zemble Auſtralis.
28	4 do.	78	30	28 Zemble Borealis.
29	5 do.	84	05	29 Spitſbergen, or E. Greenland.
30	6 do.	90	0	30 Unknown.

Latitude.] The latitude of a place is its diſtance from the equator, north or ſouth. The greateſt latitude is that of the poles, which are ninety degrees diſtant from the equator.

The

The elevation of the pole above the horizon, is always equal to the latitude of the place; for to a perſon ſituated on the equator, both poles will reſt in the horizon. If you travel one, two or more degrees north, the north pole will riſe one, two or more degrees, and will keep pace with your diſtance from the equator.

Longitude.] Every place on the ſurface of the earth has its meridian. The *Longitude* of a place, is the diſtance of its meridian from ſome other fixed meridian, meaſured on the equator. Longitude is either eaſt or weſt. All places eaſt of the fixed or firſt meridian, are in eaſt longitude; all weſt, in weſt longitude. On the equator, a degree of longitude; is equal to ſixty geographical miles; and of courſe, a minute on the equator is equal to ſixty miles. But as all the meridians cut the equator at right angles, and approach nearer and nearer to each other, until at laſt they croſs at the poles, it is obvious that the degrees of longitude will leſſen as you go from the equator to either pole; ſo that in the ſixtieth degree of latitude, a degree of longitude is but thirty miles, or half as long as a degree on the equator; as is evident from the following table.

A TABLE,

Shewing the number of miles contained in a degree of longitude in each parallel of latitude from the equator.

Degrees of latitude.	Miles.	60th parts of a mile.	Degrees of latitude.	Miles.	60th parts of a mile.	Degrees of latitude.	Miles.	60th parts of a mile.	Degrees of latitude.	Miles.	60th parts of a mile.
1	59	56	24	54	48	47	41	00	70	20	32
2	59	54	25	54	24	48	40	8	71	19	32
3	59	52	26	54	00	49	39	20	72	18	32
4	59	50	27	53	28	50	38	22	73	17	32
5	59	46	28	53	00	51	37	44	74	16	32
6	59	40	29	52	28	52	37	00	75	15	32
7	59	37	30	51	56	53	36	08	76	14	32
8	59	24	31	51	24	54	35	26	77	13	32
9	59	10	32	50	52	55	34	24	78	12	32
10	59	00	33	50	20	56	33	32	79	11	28
11	58	52	34	49	44	57	32	40	80	10	24
12	58	40	35	49	8	58	31	48	81	09	20
13	58	28	36	48	32	59	31	00	82	08	20
14	58	12	37	47	56	60	30	00	83	07	20
15	58	00	38	47	16	61	29	04	84	06	12
16	57	40	39	46	36	62	28	08	85	05	12
17	57	20	40	46	00	63	27	12	86	04	12
18	57	4	41	45	16	64	26	16	87	03	12
19	56	44	42	44	36	65	25	20	88	02	04
20	56	24	43	43	52	66	24	24	89	01	04
21	56	00	44	43	8	67	23	28	90	00	00
22	55	36	45	42	24	68	22	32			
23	55	12	46	41	40	69	21	32			

The

The Atmoſphere.] The earth is ſurrounded by a thin inviſible fluid; compoſed of a mixture of ſaline, ſulphureous, watery, earthy, and ſpirituous particles, riſing to the diſtance of between forty-five and fifty miles from the earth's ſurface. This fluid is called the *atmoſphere*. Experiment has ſhewn, that this atmoſphere is eſſential to animal and vegetable life. It is a neceſſary vehicle of ſound; and without it few things would be viſible, excepting thoſe upon which the rays of the ſun fall in a direct line between the ſun and the eye: But the rays of light, falling on the particles which compoſe the atmoſphere, are thence reflected in every direction; in this way day-light is produced, even when the whole hemiſphere is covered with clouds.

Winds.] Wind is air put in motion; the ſwifter this motion, and the more denſe the air, the greater will be the force of the wind. If it be ſoft and gentle, it is called a breeze; if freſh and violent, a gale; if the gale be attended with rain and hail, it is called a ſtorm. As the air is a fluid, its natural ſtate is reſt, which it always endeavours to keep, or recover by an univerſal equilibrium of all its parts. Whenever, therefore, this equilibrium is deſtroyed by the rarefaction of the air in particular parts, which renders it lighter in thoſe parts than in others, there neceſſarily follows a motion of all the ſurrounding air towards theſe rarefied parts, to reſtore the equilibrium; this motion is called *wind*. The velocity of the wind in a ſtorm has been aſcertained by Philoſophers, and found to be about ſixty miles an hour.

Tides.] By *tide* is meant the regular ebbing and flowing of the ſea twice in twenty four hours. The cauſe of the tides, is the attraction of the ſun and moon, but chiefly of the latter. The waters of the immenſe ocean, as it were, forgetful of their natural reſt, riſe, and roll in tides, obſequious to the ſtrong attractive power of the moon, and the weaker influence of the ſun. The moon in one revolution round the earth in twenty-four hours, produces two tides; of courſe there are as many ebbs. Theſe tides, neceſſarily following the moon's motions, flow from eaſt to weſt. This conſtant agitation of the waters of the ocean, together with their ſaltneſs, are wiſely ordained by the Creator to preſerve them from putrefaction.

Clouds.] Clouds are nothing but a collection of vapours, exhaled from the earth by the attractive influence of the ſun, ſuſpended aloft in the air, and ſoaring on the wings of the wind. They are elevated from a quarter of a mile to a mile from the earth, according to their denſity, and that of the air.

Eclipſes.] An eclipſe is a total or partial privation of the light of the ſun or moon. When the moon paſſes between the earth and the ſun, the rays of the ſun are in part intercepted, and the ſun is ſaid to be in eclipſe. When the earth intervenes between the ſun and moon, the moon, having no light of her own, appears dark or duſky; and, as we ſay, ſhe is eclipſed. An eclipſe of the ſun never happens but at a new moon; nor one of the moon but when ſhe is full.

GEOGRAPHY.

GEOGRAPHY is a ſcience deſcribing the ſurface of earth as divided into land and water.

Geography is either *univerſal*, as it relates to the earth in general; or *particular*, as it relates to any ſingle part.

The globe of the earth is made up of land and water, and is therefore called *terraqueous*. About one fourth of the ſurface of the globe is land; the other three fourths are water.

The common diviſions of the land and water are as follow:

The diviſions of land are,

I. *Into Continents.*] A continent is a large tract of land, comprehending ſeveral countries and kingdoms. Theſe countries, &c. are contiguous to each other, and are not entirely ſeparated by water. There are but two continents, the *eaſtern* and *weſtern*. The eaſtern continent is divided into Europe, Aſia and Africa; the weſtern into North and South America.

II. *Iſlands.*] An iſland is a tract of land entirely ſurrounded by water; as Rhode Iſland, Hiſpaniola, Great-Britain, Ireland, New-Zealand, Corneo, Japan, &c.

III. *Peninſulas.*] A peninſula is almoſt an iſland, or tract of land ſurrounded by water, excepting at one narrow neck; as Boſton, the Borea, Crim Tartary, and Arabia.

IV.

The diviſions of water are,

I. *Into Oceans.*] An ocean is a vaſt collection of water, not entirely ſeparated by land, and divides one continent from the other. There are three great oceans. The *Atlantic*, lying between America and Europe, three thouſand miles wide. The *Pacific*, lying between Aſia and America, ten thouſand miles over. The *Indian-Ocean*, lying between Africa and the Eaſt Indies, three thouſand miles wide.

II. *Lakes.*] A lake is a large collection of water in the heart of a country ſurrounded by land. Moſt of them, however, have a river iſſuing from them, which falls into the ocean; as Lake Ontario, Lake Erie, &c. A ſmall collection of water ſurrounded as above, is called a pond.

III. *Seas.*] A ſea or gulf is a part of the ocean, ſurrounded by land excepting a narrow paſs, called a ſtrait, by which it communicates with the occean; as the Mediterranean, Baltic and Red Seas; and the gulfs of Mexico, St. Lawrence and Venice.

IV.

IV. *Iſthmuſſes.*] An iſthmus is a narrow neck of land joining a peninſula to the main land; as the iſthmus of Darien, which joins North and South America; and the iſthmus of Seuz, which unites Aſia and Africa.

V. *Promontories.*] A promotory is a mountain or hill extending into the ſea, the extremity of which is called a cape. A point of flat land projecting far into the ſea is likewiſe called a cape; as Cape Ann, Cape Cod, Cape Hatteras.

VI. *Mountains, Hills,* &c, need no deſcription.

IV. *Straits.*] A ſtrait is a narrow paſſage out of one ſea into another; as the Straits of Gibraltar, joining the Mediterranean to the Atlantic; the Straits of Babelmandel, which unite the Red-Sea with the Indian Ocean.

V. *Bays.*] A bay is a part of the ſea running up into the main land, commonly between two capes; as Maſſachuſetts Bay, between Cape Ann and Cape Cod; Delaware Bay between Cape May and Cape Henlopen, Cheſapeek Bay, between Cape Charles and Cape Henry.

VI. *Rivers.*] A river is a conſiderable ſtream of water, iſſuing from one or more ſprings, and gliding into the ſea. A ſmall ſtream is called a rivulet or brook.

Maps.] A map is a plain figure repreſenting the ſurface of the earth, or a part of it, according to the laws of perſpective. On the map of any tract of country, are delineated its mountains, rivers, lakes, towns &c. in their proper magnitudes and ſituations. The top of a map is always north, the bottom ſouth, the right ſide eaſt, and the left ſide weſt. From the top to the bottom are drawn meridians, or lines of longitude; and from ſide to ſide the parallels of lattiude.

DISCOVERY of AMERICA.

IT is believed, by many, and not without ſome reaſon, that America was known to the ancients. Of this, however, hiſtory affords no certain evidence. Whatever diſcoveries may have been made in this weſtern world, by Madoc Gwinneth, the Carthaginians and others, are loſt to mankind. The eaſtern continent was the only theatre of hiſtory from the creation of the world to the year of our Lord 1492.

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, a native of Genoa, has deſervedly the honour of having firſt diſcovered America. From a long and cloſe application to the ſtudy of geography and navigation, for which his genius was naturally inclined, Columbus had obtained a knowledge of the true figure of the earth, much ſuperior to the general notions of the age in which he lived. In order that the terraqueous globe might be properly balanced, and the lands and ſeas proportioned to each other, he was led to conceive that another continent was neceſſary. Other reaſons induced him to believe that this continent was connected with the Eaſt Indies.

As early as the year 1474, he communicated his ingenious theory to Paul, a phyſician of Florence, eminent for his knowledge of coſmography, He

He warmly approved it,—ſuggeſted ſeveral facts in confirmation of it, and encouraged Columbus in an undertaking ſo laudable, and which promiſed ſo much benefit to the world.

Having fully ſatisfied himſelf with reſpect to the truth of his ſyſtem, he became impatient to reduce it to practice. The firſt ſtep towards this, was to ſecure the patronage of ſome of the European powers. Accordingly he laid his ſcheme before the ſenate of Genoa, making his native country the firſt tender of his ſervices. They rejected his propoſal, as the dream of a chimical projector. He next applied to John II. king of Portugal, a monarch of an enterpriſing genius, and no incompetent judge of naval affairs. The king liſtened to him in the moſt gracious manner, and referred the conſideration of his plan to a number of eminent coſmographers, whom he was accuſtomed to conſult in matters of this kind. Theſe men, from mean and intereſted views, ſtarted innumerable objections, and aſked many captious queſtions, on purpoſe to betray Columbus into a full explanation of his ſyſtem. Having done this, they adviſed the king to diſpatch a veſſel, ſecretly, in order to attempt the propoſed diſcovery, by following exactly the courſe which Columbus had pointed out. John, forgetting on this occaſion the ſentiments becoming a monarch, meanly adopted their perfidious counſel.

Upon diſcovering this diſhonourable tranſaction, Columbus, with an indignation natural to a noble and ingenious mind, quitted the kingdom, and landed in Spain in 1484.

Here he preſented his ſcheme, in perſon, to Ferdinand and Iſabella, who at that time governed the united kingdoms of Caſtile and Arragon. They injudiciouſly ſubmitted it to the examination of unſkilful judges, who ignorant of the principles on which Columbus founded his theory, rejected it as abſurd, upon the credit of a maxim under which the unenterpriſing, in every age, ſhelter themſelves, "That it is preſumptuous in any perſon, "to ſuppoſe that he alone poſſeſſes knowledge, ſuperior to all the reſt of "mankind united." They maintained, likewiſe, that if there were really any ſuch countries as Columbus pretended, they would not have remained ſo long concealed; nor would the wiſdom and ſagacity of former ages have left the glory of this diſcovery to an obſcure Genoeſe pilot.

Meanwhile, Columbus, who had experienced the uncertain iſſue of applications to kings, had taken the precaution of ſending into England his brother Bartholomew, to whom he had fully communicated his ideas, to negociate the matter with Henry VII. On his voyage to England, he fell into the hands of pirates, who ſtripped him of every thing, and detained him a priſoner ſeveral years. At length he made his eſcape, and arrived at London in extreme indigence, where he employed himſelf ſome time in ſelling maps. With his gains he purchaſed a decent dreſs; and in perſon preſented to the king the propoſals which his brother had entruſted to his management. Notwithſtanding Henry's exceſſive caution and parſimony, he received the propoſals of Columbus with more approbation than any monarch to whom they had been preſented.

After ſeveral unſucceſsful applications to other European powers of leſs note, he was induced, by the intreaty and interpoſition of Perez a man of conſiderable learning, and of ſome credit with queen Iſabella, to apply again

again to the court of Spain. This application, after much warm debate and ſeveral mortifying repulſes, proved ſucceſsful; not however, without the moſt vigorous and perſevering exertions of Quintanilla and Santangel, two vigilant and diſcerning patrons of Columbus, whoſe meritorious zeal in promoting this grand deſign, entitles their names to an honourable place in hiſtory. It was however, to Queen Iſabella, the munificent Patroneſs of his noble and generous deſigns, that Columbus ultimately owed his ſucceſs.

Having thus obtained the aſſiſtance of the court, a ſquadron of three ſmall veſſels was fitted out, victualled for twelve months, and furniſhed with ninety men. The whole expence did not exceed £.4000. Of this ſquadron Columbus was appointed admiral.

On the 3d of Auguſt, 1492, he left Spain in the preſence of a crowd of ſpectators, who united their ſupplications to Heaven for his ſucceſs. He ſteered directly for the Canary Iſlands, where he arrived and refitted, as well as he could, his crazy and ill appointed fleet. Hence he ſailed, September 6th, a due weſtern courſe into an unknown ocean.

Columbus now found a thouſand unforeſeen hardſhips to encounter, which demanded all his judgment, fortitude and addreſs to ſurmount. Beſides the difficulties, unavoidable from the nature of his undertaking, he had to ſtruggle with thoſe which aroſe from the ignorance and timidity of the people under his command. On the 14th of September he was aſtoniſhed to find that the magnetic needle in their compaſs, did not point exactly to the polar ſtar, but varied toward the weſt; and as they proceeded, this variation increaſed. This new phenomenon filled the companions of Columbus with terror. Nature itſelf ſeemed to have ſuſtained a change; and the only guide they had left, to point them to the ſafe retreat from an unbounded and trackleſs ocean, was about to fail them. Columbus, with no leſs quickneſs than ingenuity, aſſigned a reaſon for this appearance, which though it did not ſatisfy himſelf, ſeemed ſo plauſible to them, that it diſpelled their fears, or ſilenced their murmurs.

The ſailors, always diſcontented, and alarmed at their diſtance from land, ſeveral times mutinied, threatened once to throw their admiral overboard, and repeatedly inſiſted on his returning. Columbus, on theſe trying occaſions, diſplayed all that cool deliberation, prudence, ſoothing addreſs and firmneſs, which were neceſſary for a perſon engaged in a diſcovery, the moſt intereſting to the world of any ever undertaken by man.

It was on the 11th of October, 1492, at ten o'clock in the evening, that Columbus, from the fore-caſtle, deſcried a light. At two o'clock next morning, Roderic Triana diſcovered land. The joyful tidings were quickly communicated to the other ſhips. The morning light confirmed the report; and the ſeveral crews immediately began *Te Deum*, as a hymn of thankſgiving to God, and mingled their praiſes with tears of joy, and tranſports of congratulation, Columbus, richly dreſſed, with a drawn ſword in his hand, was the firſt European who ſet foot in the *New World* which he had diſcovered. The iſland on which he thus firſt landed, he called St. Salvador. It is one of that large cluſter of iſlands, known by the name of the Lucaya or Bahama Iſles. He afterwards touched at ſeveral of the iſlands in the ſame cluſter, enquiring every where for gold, which he thought

thought was the only object of commerce worthy his attention. In steering southward he discovered the islands of Cuba and Hispaniola, abounding in all the necessaries of life, and inhabited by a humane and hospitable people.

On his return he was overtaken with a storm, which had nearly proved fatal to his ships and their crews. At a crisis when all was given up for lost, Columbus had presence of mind enough to retire into his cabin, and to write upon parchment a short account of his voyage. This he wrapped in an oiled cloth, which he inclosed in a cake of wax, put it into a tight cask, and threw it into the sea, in hopes that some fortunate accident might preserve a deposit of so much importance to the world. He arrived at Palos in Spain, whence he had sailed the year before, on the 15th of March, 1493. He was welcomed with all the acclamations which the populace are ever ready to bestow on great and glorious characters; and the court received him with marks of the greatest respect.

In September of this year, (1493) Columbus sailed upon his second voyage to America; during the performance of which, he discovered the islands of Dominga, Marigalante, Gaudelupe, Montserrat, Antigua, Porto Rico and Jamaica; and returned to Spain in 1496.

In 1498 he sailed a third time for America; and on the 1st of August discovered the CONTINENT. He then coasted along westward, making other discoveries for 200 leagues, to Cape Vela, from which he crossed over to Hispaniola, where he was seized bya new Spanish Governor, and sent home in chains.

In 1502 Columbus made his fourth voyage to Hispaniola; thence he went over to the Continent—discovered the bay of Honduras; thence sailed along the main shore easterly 200 leagues, to Cape Gracias a Dios, Veragua, Porto Bello and the Gulf of Darien.

The jealous and avaricious Spaniards, not immediately receiving those golden advanteges which they had promised, and lost to the feelings of humanity and gratitude, suffered their esteem and admiration of Columbus to degenerate into ignoble envy.

The latter part of his life was made wretched by the cruel persecutions of his enemies. Queen Isabelle, his friend and patroness, was no longer alive to afford him relief. He sought redress from Ferdinand, but in vain. Disgusted with the ingratitude of a monarch, whom he had served with so much fidelity and success, exhausted with hardships, and broken with the infirmities which these brought upon him, Columbus ended his active and useful life at Valladolid, on the 20th of May, 1506, in the 59th year of his age. He died with a composure of mind suited to the magnanimity which distinguished his character, and with sentiments of piety becoming that supreme respect for religion which he manifested in every occurrence of his life. He was grave—though courteous in his deportment, circumspect in his words and actions, irreproachable in his morals, and exemplary in all the duties of his religion. The courts of Spain were so just to his memory, notwithstanding their ingratitude towards him during his life, that they buried him magnificently in the Cathedral of Seville, and erected a tomb over him with this inscription,

COLUMBUS has given a NEW WORLD
To the KINGDOMS of CASTILE and LEON.

Among

Among other adventurers to the New World in purſuit of Gold, was Americus Veſpucius, a Florentine gentleman, whom Ferdinand had appointed to draw ſea charts, and to whom he had given the title of chief pilot. This man accompanied Ojeda, an enterprizing Spaniſh adventurer, to America; and having with much art, and ſome degree of elegance, drawn up an amuſing hiſtory of his voyage, he publiſhed it to the world. It circulated rapidly, and was read with admiration. In his narrative he had inſinuated that the glory of having firſt diſcovered the continent in the New World, belonged to him. This was in part believed, and the country began to be called after the name of its ſuppoſed firſt diſcoverer. The unaccountable caprice of mankind has perpetuated the error; ſo that now, by the univerſal conſent of all nations, this new quarter of the globe is called AMERICA. The name of Americus has ſupplanted that of Columbus, and mankind are left to regret an act of injuſtice, which, having been ſanctioned by time, they can never redreſs.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION *of* AMERICA.

BOUNDARIES and EXTENT.

THE Continent of America, of the diſcovery of which a ſuccinct account has juſt been given, extends from Cape Horn, the ſouthern extremity of the Continent in latitude 56° ſouth, to the north pole; and ſpreads between the 40th degree eaſt, and the 100th degree weſt longitude from Philadelphia. It is nearly ten thouſand miles in length from north to ſouth; its mean breadth has never been aſcertained. This extenſive continent lies between the Pacific Ocean on the weſt, and the Atlantic on the eaſt. It is ſaid to contain upwards 14,000,000 ſquare miles.

Climate, Soil, and Productions.] In regard to each of theſe, America has all the varieties which the earth affords. It ſtretches through the whole width of the five zones, and feels the heat and cold of two ſummers and two winters in every year. Moſt of the animal and vegetable productions which the eaſtern continent affords, are found here; and many that are peculiar to America.

Rivers.] This continent is watered by ſome of the largeſt rivers in the world. The principal of theſe, are Rio de la Plata, the Amazon and Oronoke in South America—The Miſſiſſippi and St. Lawrence in North-America.

Gulfs.] The Gulf or Bay of *Mexico*, lying in the form of a baſon between North and South America, and opening to the eaſt, is conjectured by ſome, to have been formerly land; and that the conſtant attrition of the waters of the Gulf Stream, has worn it to its preſent form. The water in the Gulf of Mexico is ſaid to be many yards higher, than on the weſtern ſide of the continent in the Pacific Ocean.

Gulf Stream.] The *Gulf Stream* is a remarkable current in the Ocean, of a circular form, beginning on the coaſt of Africa, in the climates where the

the trade winds blow weſterly, thence running acroſs the Atlantic, and between the Iſlands of Cuba and South America into the Bay of Mexico, from which it finds a paſſage between Cape Florida and the Bahama Iſlands, and runs north-eaſterly along the American coaſt to Newfoundland; thence to the European coaſt, and along the coaſt ſoutherly till it meets the trade winds. It is about 75 miles from the ſhores of the ſouthern ſtates. The diſtance increaſes as you proceed northward. The width of the ſtream is about 40 or 50 miles, widening toward the north, and its common rapidity three miles an hour.—A north-eaſt wind narrows the ſtream, renders it more rapid, and drives it nearer the coaſt; north-weſt and weſt winds have a contrary effect.

Mountains.] The *Andes* in South America, ſtretch along the Pacific Ocean from the Iſthmus of Darien, to the Straits of Magellan, 4300 miles. The height of Chimborazo, the moſt elevated point in this vaſt chain of mountains, is 20,280 feet; above 5000 feet higher than any other mountain in the known world.

North America, though an uneven country, has no remarkably high mountains. The moſt conſiderable, are thoſe known under the general name of the *Alleganv Mountains:* Theſe ſtretch along in many broken ridges under different names, from Hudſon's River to Georgia. The *Andes* and the *Alleganv Mountains* are probably the ſame range, interrupted by the Gulf of Mexico. It hath been conjectured that the Weſt India iſlands were formerly united with each other, and formed a part of the continent, connecting North and South America. Their preſent diſjointed ſituation is ſuppoſed to have been occaſioned by the trade winds. It is well known that they produce a ſtrong and continual current from eaſt to weſt, which by beating againſt the continent for a long courſe of years, muſt produce ſurpriſing alterations, and may have produced ſuch an effect as has been ſuppoſed.

Number of Inhabitants.] It has been ſuppoſed that there are 160 millions of inhabitants in America. It is believed, however, that this account is exaggerated at leaſt one half. This number is compoſed of Indians, Negroes, Mulattoes, and ſome of almoſt every nation in Europe.

Aborigines.] The characteriſtical features of the Indians of America, are, a very ſmall forehead covered with hair from the extremities to the middle of the eyebrows. They have little black eyes, a thin noſe, ſmall and bending towards the upper lip. The countenance broad; the features coarſe, the ears large and far from the face; their hair very black, lank and coarſe. Their limbs ſmall but well turned; the body tall, ſtrait, of a copper colour, and well proportioned; ſtrong and active, but not fitted for much labour. Their faces ſmooth and free from beard, owing to a cuſtom among them of pulling it out by the roots. Their countenances at firſt view appear mild and innocent, but upon a critical inſpection, they diſcover ſomething wild, diſtruſtful and ſullen. They are dextrous with their bows and arrows; fond of adorning themſelves with ſtrings of beads and ſhells about their necks, and plates in their ears and noſes. In ſummer they go almoſt naked; but in winter they cover themſelves with the ſkins of beaſts taken in hunting, which is their principal employment. They many times torture their priſoners in the

moſt ſhocking and cruel manner; generally ſcalp them, and ſometimes broil and eat them. A great part of the Aborigines of America are groſs idolaters, and worſhip the ſun, moon, and ſtars. It is the opinion of many learned men, ſupported by ſeveral well eſtabliſhed facts, that the Indians of America are remains of the ten tribes of Iſrael, and that they came to this continent in the manner hereafter mentioned.

Society among ſavages is extremely rude. The improvement of the talents which nature has given them, is of courſe proportionably ſmall. It is the genius of a ſavage to act from the impulſe of preſent paſſion. They have neither foreſight nor diſpoſition to form complicated arrangements with reſpect to their future conduct. This, however, is not to be aſcribed to any defect in their natural genius, but to their ſtate of ſociety, which affords few objects for the diſplay either of their literary or political abilities. In all their warlike enterprizes they are led by perſuaſion. Their ſociety allows of no compulſion. What civilized nations enforce upon their ſubjects by compulſory meaſures, they effect by their eloquence; hence the foundation of thoſe maſterly ſtrokes of oratory, which have been exhibited at their treaties; ſome of which equal the moſt finiſhed pieces that have been produced by the moſt eminent ancient or modern orators.

As a ſpecimen, take the following from Mr. Jefferſon's notes on Virginia. 'I may challenge the whole orations of Demoſthenes and Cicero, and of any more eminent orator, if Europe has furniſhed more eminent, to produce a ſingle paſſage, ſuperior to the ſpeech of Logan, a Mingo chief, to Lord Dunmore, when governor of this ſtate. And, as a teſtimony of their talents in this line, I beg leave to introduce it, firſt ſtating the incidents neceſſary for underſtanding it. In the ſpring of the year 1774, a robbery and murder were committed on an inhabitant of the frontiers of Virginia, by two Indians of the Shawanee tribe. The neighbouring whites, according to their cuſtom, undertook to puniſh this outrage in a ſummary way. Col. Creſap, a man infamous for the many murders he had committed on thoſe much injured people, collected a party, and proceeded down the Kanhaway in queſt of vengeance. Unfortunately a canoe of women and children, with one man only, was ſeen coming from the oppoſite ſhore, unarmed, and unſuſpecting an hoſtile attack from the whites. Creſap and his party concealed themſelves on the bank of the river, and the moment the canoe reached the ſhore, ſingled out their objects, and, at one fire, killed every perſon in it. This happened to be the family of Logan, who had long been diſtinguiſhed as a friend of the whites. This unworthy return provoked his vengeance. He accordingly ſignalized himſelf in the war which enſued. In the autumn of the ſame year, a deciſive battle was fought at the mouth of the Great Kanhaway, between the collected forces of the Shawanees, Mingoes, and Delawares, and a detachment of the Virginia militia. The Indians were defeated, and ſued for peace. Logan however diſdained to be ſeen among the ſuppliants. But, leſt the ſincerity of a treaty ſhould be diſtruſted, from which ſo diſtinguiſhed a chief abſented himſelf, he ſent by a meſſenger the following ſpeech to be delivered to Lord Dunmore.

"I appeal to any white man to ſay, if ever he entered Logan's cabin hungry, and he gave him not meat; if ever he came cold and naked, and he

he clothed him not. During the courſe of the laſt long and bloody war, Logan remained idle in his cabin, an advocate for peace. Such was my love for the whites, that my countrymen pointed as they paſſed, and ſaid, "Logan is the friend of white men." I had even thought to have lived with you, but for the injuries of one man. Col. Creſap, the laſt ſpring, in cold blood, and unprovoked, murdered all the relations of Logan, not ſparing even my women and children. There runs not a drop of my blood in the veins of any living creature. This called on me for revenge. I have ſought it: I have killed many: I have fully glutted my vengeance. For my country, I rejoice at the beams of peace. But do not harbour a thought that mine is the joy of fear. Logan never felt fear. He will not turn on his heel to ſave his life. Who is there to mourn for Logan?—Not one."

Of their bravery and addreſs in war they have given us multiplied proofs. No people in the world have higher notions of military honour than the Indians. The fortitude, the calmneſs, and even exultation which they manifeſt while under the extremeſt torture, is in part owing to their ſavage inſenſibility, but more to their exalted ideas of military glory, and their rude notions of future happineſs, which they believe they ſhall forfeit by the leaſt manifeſtation of fear, or uneaſineſs, under their ſufferings. They are ſincere in their freindſhips, but bitter and determined in their reſentments, and often purſue their enemies ſeveral hundred miles through the woods, ſurmounting every difficulty, in order to be revenged. In their public councils they obſerve the greateſt decorum. In the foremoſt rank ſit the old men, who are the counſellors, then the warriors, and next the women and children. As they keep no records, it is the buſineſs of the women to notice every thing that paſſes, to imprint it on their memories, and tell it to their children. They are, in ſhort, the records of the council; and with ſurpriſing exactneſs, preſerve the ſtipulations of treaties entered into a hundred years back. Their kindneſs and hoſpitality is ſcarcely equalled by any civilized nation. Their politeneſs in converſation is even carried to exceſs, ſince it does not allow them to contradict any thing that is aſſerted in their preſence. In ſhort there appears to be much truth in Dr. Franklin's obſervation, "We call them ſavages, becauſe their manners differ from ours, which we think the perfection of civility; they think the ſame of theirs."

The firſt peopling of America.] It has long been a queſtion among the curious, how America was firſt peopled. Various have been the theories and ſpeculations of ingenious men upon this ſubject. Dr. Robertſon* has recapitulated and canvaſſed the moſt probable of theſe theories, and the reſult is,

I. That America was not peopled by any nation from the ancient continent, which had made any conſiderable progreſs in civilization; becauſe when Ameriea was firſt diſcovered, its inhabitants were unacquainted with the neceſſary arts of life, which are the firſt eſſays of the human mind toward improvement; and if they had ever been acquainted with them, for inſtance with the plow, the loom, and the forge, their utility would have been ſo great, and obvious, that it is impoſſible they ſhould have

* Hiſt. America, Vol. I. Page 22.

been loſt. Therefore the anceſtors of the firſt ſettlers in America were uncivilized and unacquainted with the neceſſary arts of life.

II. America could not have been peopled by any colony from the more ſouthern nations of the ancient continent; becauſe none of the rude tribes of theſe parts poſſeſſed enterprize, ingenuity, or power ſufficient to undertake ſuch a diſtant voyage; but more eſpecially, becauſe, that in all America there is not an animal, tame or wild, which properly belongs to the warm or temperate countries of the eaſtern continent. The firſt care of the Spaniards, when they ſettled in America, was to ſtock it with all the domeſtic animals of Europe. The firſt ſettlers of Virginia and New England, brought over with them horſes, cattle, ſheep, &c. Hence it is obvious that the people who firſt ſettled in America, did not originate from thoſe countries where theſe animals abound, otherwiſe, having been accuſtomed to their aid, they would have ſuppoſed them neceſſary to the improvement, and even ſupport of civil ſociety.

III. Since the animals in the northern regions of America correſpond with thoſe found in Europe in the ſame latitudes, while thoſe in the tropical regions are indigenous, and widely different from thoſe which inhabit the correſponding regions on the eaſtern continent, it is more than probable that all the original American animals were of thoſe kinds which inhabit northern regions only, and that the two continents, towards the northern extremity, are ſo nearly united as that theſe animals might paſs from one to the other.

IV. It having been eſtabliſhed beyond a doubt, by the diſcoveries of Capt. Cook in his laſt voyage, that at *Kamſkatka*, in about latitude 66° north, the continents of Aſia and America are ſeparated by a ſtrait *only* 18 miles wide, and that the inhabitants on each continent are ſimilar, and frequently paſs and repaſs in canoes from one continent to the other; from theſe and other circumſtances it is rendered highly probable that America was firſt peopled from the north-eaſt parts of Aſia. But ſince the Eſquimaux Indians are manifeſtly a ſeparate ſpecies of men, diſtinct from all the nations of the American Continent, in language, in diſpoſition, and in habits of life; and in all theſe reſpects bear a near reſemblance to the northern Europeans, it is believed that the Eſquimaux Indians emigrated from the north-weſt parts of Europe. Several circumſtances confirm this belief. As early as the ninth century the Norwegians diſcovered Greenland, and planted colonies there. The communication with that country, after long interruption, was renewed in the laſt century. Some Lutherian and Moravian miſſionaries, prompted by zeal for propagating the Chriſtian faith, have ventured to ſettle in this frozen region. From them we learn, that the north-weſt coaſt of Greenland is ſeparated from America but by a very narrow ſtrait, if ſeparated at all; and that the Eſquimaux of America perfectly reſemble the Greenlanders in their aſpect, dreſs, mode of living, and probably language. By theſe deciſive facts, not only the conſanguinity of the Eſquimaux and Greenlanders is eſtabliſhed, but the poſſibility of peopling America from the north-weſt parts of Europe. On the whole it appears rational to conclude, that the progenitors of all the American nations, from Cape Horn to the ſouthern limits of Labrador, from the ſimilarity of their aſpect, colour, &c. migrated from the north-eaſt parts of Aſia: and that the nations that inhabit Labrador,

Labrador, Eſquimaux, and the parts adjacent, from their unlikeneſs to the reſt of the American nations, and their reſemblance to the northern Europeans, came over from the north-weſt parts of Europe.

Having given a ſummary account of America in general; of its firſt diſcovery by Columbus, its extent, rivers, mountains, &c. of the Aborigines, and of the firſt peopling this continent, we ſhall next turn our attention to the diſcovery and ſettlement of North America.

A SUMMARY *Account of the firſt* DISCOVERIES *and* SETTLEMENTS *of* NORTH AMERICA, *arranged in Chronological Order.*

NORTH AMERICA was diſcovered in the reign of Henry VII. a period when the Arts and Sciences had made very conſiderable progreſs in Europe. Many of the firſt adventurers were men of genius and learning, and were careful to preſerve authentic records of ſuch of their proceedings as would be intereſting to poſterity. Theſe records afford ample documents for American hiſtorians. Perhaps no people on the globe can trace the hiſtory of their origin and progreſs with ſo much preciſion as the inhabitants of North America; particularly that part of them who inhabit the territory of the United States.

The fame which Columbus had acquired by his firſt diſcoveries on this weſtern continent, ſpread through Europe, and inſpired many with
1496 the ſpirit of enterprize. As early as 1496, four years only after the firſt diſcovery of America, John Cabot, a Venetian, obtained a commiſſion from Henry VII. to diſcover unknown lands and annex them to the crown.

In the ſpring he ſailed from England with two ſhips, carrying with him his three ſons. In this voyage, which was intended for China, he fell in with the north ſide of Terra Labrador, and coaſted northerly as far as the 67th degree of latitude.

1497.] The next year he made a ſecond voyage to America with his ſon Sebaſtian, who afterwards proceeded in the diſcoveries which his father had begun. On the 24th of June he diſcovered Bonaviſta, on the north-eaſt ſide of Newfoundland. Before his return he traverſed the coaſt from Davis's Straits to Cape Florida.

1502.] Sebaſtian Cabot was this year at Newfoundland; and on his return carried three of the natives of that iſland to Henry VII.

1513. In the ſpring of 1513, John Ponce ſailed from Porto Rico northerly, and diſcovered the continent of 30° 8 north latitude. He landed in April, a ſeaſon when the country around was covered with verdure, and in full bloom. This circumſtance induced him to call the country FLORIDA, which, for many years, was the common name for North and South America.

1516.] In 1516, Sir Sebaſtian Cabot and Sir Thomas Pert explored the coaſt as far as Brazil in South America.

This vaſt extent of country, the coaſt whereof was thus explored, remained unclaimed and unſettled by any European power, (except by the Spaniards in South America) for almoſt a century from the time of its diſcovery

1524.] It was not till the year 1524 that France attempted diſcoveries on the American coaſt. Stimulated by his enterprizing neighbours, Francis I. who poſſeſſed a great and active mind, ſent John Verrazano, a Florentine, to America, for the purpoſe of making diſcoveries. He traverſed the coaſt from latitude 28° to 50° north. In a ſecond voyage, ſome time after, he was loſt.

1525.] The next year Stephen Gomez, the firſt Spaniard who came upon the American coaſt for diſcovery, ſailed from Groyn in Spain, to Cuba and Florida, thence northward to Cape Razo, in latitude 46° north, in ſearch of a north-weſt paſſage to the Eaſt Indies.

1534.] In the ſpring of 1534, by the direction of Francis I. a fleet was fitted out at St. Malo's in France, with deſign to make diſcoveries in America. The command of this fleet was given to James Cartier. He arrived at Newfoundland in May of this year. Thence he ſailed northerly; and on the day of the feſtival of St. Lawrence, he found himſelf in about latitude 48° 30′ north, in the midſt of a broad gulf, which he named St. Lawrence. He gave the ſame name to the river which empties into it. In this voyage, he ſailed as far north as latitude 51°, expecting in vain to find a paſſage to China.

1535.] The next year he ſailed up the river St. Lawrence 300 leagues to the great and ſwift *Fall*. He called the country New France; built a fort in which he ſpent the winter, and returned in the following ſpring to France.

1542.] In 1542, Francis la Roche, Lord of Robewell, was ſent to Canada, by the French king, with three ſhips and 200 men, women and children. They wintered here in a fort which they had built, and returned in the ſpring. About the year 1550, a large number of adventurers ſailed for Canada, but were never after heard of. In 1598, the king of France commiſſioned the Marquis de la Roche to conquer Canada, and other countries not poſſeſſed by any Chriſtian prince. We do not learn, however, that la Roche ever attempted to execute his commiſſion, or that any further attempts were made to ſettle Canada during this century.

1539.] On the 12th of May, 1539, Ferdinand de Soto, with 900 men, beſides ſeamen, ſailed from Cuba, having for his object the conqueſt of Florida. On the 30th of May he arrived at Spirito Santo, from whence he travelled northward 450 leagues from the ſea. Here he diſcovered a river a quarter of a mile wide and 19 fathoms deep, on the bank
1542 of which he died and was buried, May 1542, aged 42 years.
1543 Alverdo his ſucceſſor built ſeven brigantines, and the year following embarked upon the river. In 17 days he proceeded down the river 400 leagues, where he judged it to be 15 leagues wide. From the largeneſs of the river at the place of his embarkation, he concluded its ſource muſt have been at leaſt 400 leagues above, ſo that the whole length of the river in his opinion muſt have been more than 800 leagues. As he paſſed down the river, he found it opened by two months into the gulf of Mexico. Theſe circumſtances led us to conclude, that this river, ſo early diſcovered, was the one which we now call the *Miſſiſippi*.

Jan.

Jan. 6, 1549.] This year king Henry VII. granted a penſion for life to Sebaſtian Cabot, in conſideration of the important ſervices he had rendered to the kingdom by his diſcoveries in America.

1562.] The admiral of France, Chatillon, early in this year, ſent out a fleet under the command of John Ribalt. He arrived at Cape Francis on the coaſt of Florida, near which, on the firſt of May, he diſcovered and entered a river which he called May river. It is more than probable that this river is the ſame which we now call St. Mary's, which forms a part of the ſouthern boundary of the United States. As he coaſted northward he diſcovered eight other rivers, one of which he called Port Royal, and ſailed up it ſeveral leagues. On one of the rivers he built a fort and called it *Charles*, in which he left a colony under the direction of Captain Albert. The ſeverity of Albert's meaſures excited a
1564 mutiny, in which, to the ruin of the colony, he was ſlain. Two years after, Chatillon ſent Rene Laudonier, with three ſhips, to Florida. In June he arrived at the river *May*, on which he built a fort, and, in honour to his king, Charles IX. he called it CAROLINA.

In Auguſt, this year, Capt. Ribalt arrived at Florida the ſecond time, with a fleet of ſeven veſſels to recruit the colony, which, two years before, he had left under the direction of the unfortunate Capt. Albert.

The September following, Pedro Melandes, with ſix Spaniſh ſhips, purſued Ribalt up the river on which he had ſettled, and overpowering him in numbers, cruelly maſſacred him and his whole company. Melendes, having in this way taken poſſeſſion of the country, built three forts, and left them garriſoned with 1200 ſoldiers. Laudonier and his colony on May River, receiving information of the fate of Ribalt, took the alarm and eſcaped to France.

1567.] A fleet of three ſhips was this year ſent from France to Florida, under the command of Dominique de Gourges. The object of this expedition was to diſpoſſeſs the Spaniards of that part of Florida which they had cruelly and unjuſtifiably ſeized three years before. He
1568 arrived on the coaſt of Florida, April 1568, and ſoon after made a ſucceſsful attack upon the forts. The recent cruelty Melendes and his company excited revenge in the breaſt of Gourges, and roufed the unjuſtifiable principle of retaliation. He took the forts; put moſt of the Spaniards to the ſword; and having burned and demoliſhed all their fortreſſes, returned to France. During the fifty years next after this event, the French enterprized no ſettlements in America.

1576.] Capt. Frobiſher was ſent this year to find out a north weſt paſſage to the Eaſt-Indies. The firſt land which he made on the coaſt was a Cape, which, in honour to the queen, he called *Queen Elizabeth's Foreland.* In coaſting northerly he diſcovered the ſtraits which bear his name. He proſecuted his ſearch for a paſſage into the weſtern ocean till he was prevented by the ice, and then returned to England.

1579.] In 1579, Sir Humphrey Gilbert obtained a patent from queen Elizabeth, for lands not yet poſſeſſed by any Chriſtian prince, provided he would take poſſeſſion within ſix years. With this encouragement he ſailed for America, and on the 1ſt of Auguſt, 1583, anchored in Conception Bay. Afterwards he diſcovered and took poſſeſſion of St. John's Harbour, and the country ſouth. In purſuing his diſcoveries

diſcoveries he loſt one of his ſhips on the ſhoals of Sablon, and on his return home, a ſtorm overtook him, in which he was unfortunately loſt, and the intended ſettlement was prevented.

1584.] This year two patents were granted by queen Elizabeth, one to Adrian Gilbert, (Feb. 6.) the other to Sir Walter Raleigh, for lands not poſſeſſed by any Chriſtian prince. By the direction of Sir Walter, two ſhips were fitted and ſent out, under the command of Philip Amidas, and Arthur Barlow. In July they arrived on the coaſt, and anchored in a harbour ſeven leagues weſt of the Roanoke. On the 13th of July, they, in a formal manner, took poſſeſſion of the country, and, in honour of their virgin queen Elizabeth, they called it *Virginia.* Till this time the country was known by the general name of *Florida.* After this VIRGINIA became the common name for all North America.

1585.] The next year, Sir Walter Raleigh ſent Sir Richard Greenville to America, with ſeven ſhips. He arrived at Wococon Harbour in June. Having ſtationed a colony of more than an hundred people at Roanoke, under the direction of Capt. Ralph Lane, he coaſted north-eaſterly as far as Cheſapeek Bay, and returned to England.

The colony under Capt. Lane endured extreme hardſhips, and muſt have periſhed, had not Sir Francis Drake fortunately returned to Virginia, and carried them to England, after having made ſeveral conqueſts for the queen in the Weſt Indies and other places.

A fortnight after, Sir Richard Greenville arrived with new recruits; and, although he did not find the colony which he had before left, and knew not but they had periſhed, he had the raſhneſs to leave 50 men at the ſame place.

1587.] The year following, Sir Walter ſent another company to Virginia, under Governor White, with a charter and twelve aſſiſtants. In July he arrived at Roanoke. Not one of the ſecond company remained. He determined, however, to riſque a third colony. Accordingly he left 115 people at the old ſettlement, and returned to England.

This year (Aug. 13) *Manteo* was baptized in Virginia. He was the firſt native Indian who recieved that ordinance in that part of America. On the 18th of Auguſt, Mrs. Dare was delivered of a daughter, whom ſhe called VIRGINIA. She was the firſt Engliſh child that was born in North America.

1590.] In the year 1590, Governor White came over to Virginia with ſupplies and recruits for his colony; but, to his great grief, not a man was to be found. They had all miſerably famiſhed with hunger, or were maſſacreed by the Indians.

1602.] In the ſpring of this year, Bartholomew Goſnold, with 32 perſons, made a voyage to North Virginia, and diſcovered and gave names to Cape Cod, Martha's Vineyard, and Elizabeth Iſlands, and to Dover Cliff. Elizabeth Iſland was the place which they fixed for their ſettlement. But the courage of thoſe who were to have tarried, failing, they all went on board and returned to England. All the attempts to ſettle this continent which were made by the Dutch, French, and Engliſh, from its diſcovery to the preſent time, a period of 110 years, proved ineffectual. The Spaniards only, of all the European nations, had been ſucceſsful. There is no account of there having been one European family,

family, at this time, in all the vaſt extent of coaſt from Florida to Greenland.

1603.] Martin Pring and William Brown were this year ſent by Sir Walter Raleigh, with two ſmall veſſels, to make diſcoveries in North Virginia. They came upon the coaſt which was broken with a multitude of iſlands, in latitude 43° 30′ north. They coaſted ſouthward to Cape Cod Bay; thence round the Cape into a commodious harbour in latitude 41° 25′, where they went aſhore and tarried ſeven weeks, during which time they loaded one of their veſſels with ſaſſafras, and returned to England.

Bartholomew Gilbert, in a voyage to South Virginia, in ſearch of the third colony which had been left there by Governor White in 1587, having touched at ſeveral of the Weſt-India Iſlands, landed near Cheſapeek Bay, where, in a ſkirmiſh with the Indians, he and four of his men were unfortunately ſlain. The reſt, without any further ſearch for the colony, returned to England.

France, being at this time in a ſtate of tranquility in conſequence of the edict of Nantz in favour of the Proteſtants, paſſed by Henry IV. (April 1598) and of the peace with Philip king of Spain and Portugal, was induced to purſue her diſcoveries in America. Accordingly the king ſigned a patent in favor of De Mons, (1603) of all the country from the 40th to the 46th degrees of north latitude under the name
1604 of *Acadia*. The next year De Mons ranged the coaſt from St. Lawrence to Cape Sable, and ſo round to Cape Cod.

1605.] In May 1605, George's Iſland and Pentecoſt Harbour were diſcovered by Capt. George Weymouth. In May he entered a large river in latitude 43° 20′, (variation 11° 15′ weſt,) which Mr. Prince, in his Chronology, ſuppoſes muſt have been Sagadahok; but from the latitude, it was more probably the Piſcataqua. Capt. Weymouth carried with him to England five of the natives.

1606.] In the Spring of this year, James I. by patent, divided Virginia into two colonies. The *ſouthern* included all lands between the 34th and 41ſt degrees of north latitude. This was ſtyled the *firſt colony*, under the name of South Virginia, and was granted to the London Company. The *northern*, called the ſecond colony, and known by the general name of North Virginia, included all lands between the 38th and 45th degrees north latitude, and was granted to the Plymouth Company. Each of theſe colonies had a council of thirteen men to govern them. To prevent diſputes about territory, the colonies were prohibited to plant within an hundred miles of each other. There appears to be an inconſiſtency in theſe grants, as the lands lying between the 38th and 41ſt degrees, are covered by both patents.

Both the London and Plymouth companies enterprized ſettlements within the limits of their reſpective grants. With what ſucceſs will now be mentioned.

Mr. Piercy, brother of the Earl of Northumberland, in the ſervice of the London Company, went over with a colony to Virginia, and diſcovered Powhatan, now James River. In the mean time the Plymouth Company ſent Capt. Henry Challons in a veſſel of fifty-five tons to plant a colony in North-Virginia; but in his voyage he was taken by a Spaniſh fleet and carried to Spain.

[1607.

1607.] The London company this ſpring, ſent Capt. Chriſtopher New-
April 26.] port with three veſſels to South Virginia. On the 26th of April he entered Cheſapeek Bay, and landed, and ſoon after gave to the moſt ſouthern point, the name of *Cape Henry*, which it ſtill retains.
May 13.] Having elected Mr. Edward Wingfield preſident for the year, they next day landed all their men, and began a ſettlement on James river, at a place which they called James-Town. This is
June 22.] the firſt town that was ſettled by the Engliſh in North America. The June following Capt. Newport ſailed for England, leaving with the preſident one hundred and four perſons.

Auguſt 22.] In Auguſt died Capt. Bartholomew Goſnold, the firſt projector of this ſettlement, and one of the council. The following winter James-Town was burnt.

During this time the Plymouth company fitted out two ſhips under the command of Admiral Rawley Gilbert. They ſailed for North Virginia on the 31ſt of May, with one hundred planters, and Capt. George Popham for their preſident. They arrived in Auguſt, and ſettled about nine or ten leagues to the ſouthward of the mouth of Sagadahok river. A great part of the colony, however, diſheartened by the ſeverity of the winter, returned to England in December, leaving their preſident, Capt. Popham, with only forty-five men.

It was in the fall of this year that the famous Mr. Robinſon, with part of his congregation, who afterwards ſettled at Plymouth in New-England, removed from the North of England to Holland, to avoid the cruelties of perſecution, and for the ſake of enjoying "purity of worſhip and liberty of conſcience."

This year a ſmall company of merchants at Dieppe and St. Malo's founded Quebec, or rather the colony which they ſent, built a few huts there, which did not take the form of a town until the reign of Lewis XIV.

1608.] The Sagadahok colony ſuffered incredible hardſhips after the departure of their friends in December. In the depth of winter, which was extremly cold, their ſtore houſe caught fire and was conſumed, with moſt of their proviſions and lodgings. Their misfortunes were increaſed, ſoon after, by the death of their preſident. Rawley Gilbert was appointed to ſucceed him.

Lord Chief Juſtice Popham made every exertion to keep this colony alive by repeatedly ſending them ſupplies. But the circumſtance of his death, which happened this year, together with that of preſident Gilbert's being called to England to ſettle his affairs, broke up the colony, and they all returned with him to England.

The unfavourable reports which theſe firſt unfortunate adventurers propagated reſpecting the country, prevented any further attempts to ſettle North Virginia for ſeveral years after.

1609.] The London company, laſt year, ſent Capt. Nelſon, with two ſhips and one hundred and twenty perſons, to James-Town; and this year Capt. John Smith, afterwards preſident, arrived on the coaſt of South Virginia, and by ſailing up a number of the rivers, diſcovered the interior country. In September, Capt. Newport arrived with ſeventy perſons, which increaſed the colony to two hundred ſouls.

Mr.

Robinſon and his congregation, who had ſettled at Amſterdam,
ed this year to Leyden, where they remained more than eleven
till a part of them came over to New England.
e council for South Virginia having reſigned their old commiſſion,
ſed and obtained a new one; in conſequence of which they appoint-
Thomas Weſt, Lord De la War, general of the colony; Sir Tho-
ates, his lieutenant; Sir George Somers, Admiral; Sir Thomas Dale,
narſhal; Sir Ferdinand Wainham, general of the horſe, and Capt.
ort, vice-admiral.
ne 8.] In June, Sir T. Gates, admiral Newport, and Sir George
s, with ſeven ſhips and a ketch and pinnace, having five hundred ſouls
on board, men, women, and children, ſailed from Falmouth for
4.] South Virginia. In croſſing the Bahama Gulf, on the 24th
July, the fleet was overtaken by a violent ſtorm, and ſeparated.
days after, Sir George Somers ran his veſſel aſhore on one of the
udas Iſlands, which, from this circumſtance, have been called the
Iſlands. The people on board, one hundred and fifty in num-
l got ſafe on ſhore, and there remained until the following May.
emainder of the fleet arrived at Virginia in Auguſt. The colony
ow increaſed to five hundred men. Capt. Smith, then preſident,
e before the arrival of the fleet, had been very badly burnt by
of ſome powder which had accidentally caught fire. This unfor-
circumſtance, together with the oppoſition he met with from thoſe
ad lately arrived, induced him to leave the colony and return to
nd, which he accordingly did the laſt of September. Francis Weſt,
ceſſor in office, ſoon followed him, and George Piercy was elected
nt.
o.] The year following, the South Virginia or London company,
a patent to Lord De la War, conſtituting him Governor and Cap-
General of South-Virginia. He ſoon after embarked for America
Capt. Argal and one hundred and fifty men, in three ſhips.
e unfortunate people, who, the year before, had been ſhipwrecked
Bermudas Iſlands, had employed themſelves during the winter and
, under the direction of Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Somers, and
l Newport, in building a ſloop to tranſport themſelves to the conti-
They embarked for Virginia on the 10th of May, with about one
ed and fifty perſons on board, leaving two of their men behind, who
to ſtay, and landed at James-Town on the 23d of the ſame month.
ng the colony, which at the time of Capt. Smith's departure, con-
of five hundred ſouls, now reduced to ſixty, and thoſe few in a diſ-
and wretched ſituation, they with one voice reſolved to return to
nd; and for this purpoſe, on the 7th of June, the whole colony
ed on board their veſſels, broke up the ſettlement, and ſailed down
ver on their way to their native country.
tunately, Lord De la War, who had embarked for James-Town
arch before, met them the day after they ſailed, and perſuaded them
urn with him to James-Town, where they arrived and landed the
of June. The government of the colony of right devolved upon
De la War. From this time we may date the effectual ſettlement of
nia. Its hiſtory, from this period, will be given in its proper place.

As

As early as the year 1608, or 1609, Henry Hudſon, an Engliſhman under a commiſſion from the king his maſter, diſcovered Long Iſland New York, and the river which ſtills bears his name, and afterwards ſol the country, or rather his right, to the Dutch. Their writers, however contend that Hudſon was ſent out by the Eaſt-India company in 1609. t diſcover a northweſt paſſage to China; and that having firſt diſcovere Delaware Bay, he came and penetrated Hudſon's river as far as latitud 43°. It is ſaid however that there was a ſale, and that the Engliſh ob jected to it, though for ſome time they neglected to oppoſe the Dutc ſettlement of the country.

1610.] In 1610, Hudſon failed again to this country, then called H the Dutch *New Netherlands*, and four years after, the States-General gran ed a patent to ſundry merchants for an excluſive trade on th 1614 North river, who the ſame year, (1614) built a fort on the weſt ſid near Albany. From this time we may date the ſettlement of New York, the hiſtory of which will be annexed to a deſcription of the State

Conception Bay, on the Iſland of Newfoundland, was ſettled in th year 1610, by about forty planters under governor John Guy, to whom king James had given a patent of incorporation.

Champlain, a Frenchman, had begun a ſettlement at Quebec, 160 St. Croix, Mount Manſel, and Port Royal were ſettled about the ſam time. Theſe ſettlements remained undiſturbed till 1613, when the Vir ginians, hearing that the French had ſettled within their limits, ſent Capt Argal to diſlodge them. For this purpoſe he ſailed to Sagadahok, too their forts at Mount Manſel, St. Croix, and Port Royal, with their veſſels ordnance, cattle, and proviſions, and carried them to James-Town i Virginia. Quebec was left in poſſeſſion of the French.

1614.] This year Capt. John Smith, with two ſhips and forty-five men and boys, made a voyage to North Virginia, to make experiments upo a gold and copper mine. His orders were, to fiſh and trade with the na tives, if he ſhould fail in his expectations with regard to the mine. T facilitate this buſineſs. he took with him *Tantum*, an Indian, perhaps on that Capt. Weymouth carried to England in 1605. In April he reache the Iſland Monahigan in latitue 43° 30'. Here Capt. Smith was direc ted to ſtay and keep poſſeſſion, with ten men, for the purpoſe of making trial of the whaling buſineſs; butbeing diſappointed in this, he built ſeve boats, in which thirty-ſeven men made a very ſucceſsful fiſhing voyage. I the mean time the captain himſelf, with eight men only, in a ſmall boat coaſted from Penobſcot to Sagadahok, Accociſco, Paſſataquack, Tragabi zanda, now called Cape Ann, thence to Acomak, where he ſkirmiſhed with ſome Indians; thence to Cape Cod where he ſet his Indian Tantum aſhor and left him, and returned to Monahigan. In this voyage he found tw French ſhips in the Bay of Maſſachuſetts, who had come there ſix week before, and during that time, had been trading very advantageouſly with the Indians. It was conjectured there were, at this time, three thou ſand Indians upon the Maſſachuſetts Iſlands.

In July, Capt. Smith embarked for England in one of the veſſels, leav ing the other under the command of Capt. Thomas Hunt to equip for a voyage to Spain. After Capt. Smith's departure, Hunt perfidiouſly al lured twenty Indians (one of whom was *Squanto*, afterwards ſo ſerviceable t th

the Engliſh) to come on board his ſhip at Patuxit, and ſeven more at Nauſit, and carried them to the Iſland of Malaga, where he ſold them for twenty pounds each, to be ſlaves for life. This conduct, which fixes an indelible ſtigna upon the character of Hunt, excited in the breaſts of the Indians ſuch an inveterate hatred of the Engliſh, as that, for many years after, all commercial intercourſe with them was rendered exceedingly dangerous.

Capt. Smith arrived at London the laſt of Auguſt, where he drew a map of the country, and called it NEW-ENGLAND. From this time North Virginia aſſumed the name of *New-England*, and the name *Virginia* was confined to the ſouthern colony.

Between the years 1614 and 1620, ſeveral attempts were made by the Plymouth company to ſettle New England, but by various means they were all rendered ineffectual. During this time, however, an advantageous trade was carried on with the natives.

1617.] In the year 1617, Mr. Robinſon and his congregation, influenced by ſeveral weighty reaſons, meditated a removal to America. Various difficulties intervened to prevent the ſucceſs of their deſigns,
1620 until the year of 1620, when a part of Mr. Robinſon's congregation came over and ſettled at Plymouth. At this time commenced the ſettlement of New-England.

The particulars relating to the firſt emigrations to this northern part of America; the progreſs of ſettlement, &c, will be given in the hiſtory of New-England, to which the reader is referred.

In order to preſerve the chronological order in which the ſeveral colonies, now grown into independent ſtates, were firſt ſettled, it will be
1621 neceſſary that I ſhould juſt mention, that the next year after the ſettlement of Plymouth, Captain John Maſon obtained of the Plymouth council a grant of a part of the preſent ſtate of New-Hamp-
1623 ſhire. Two years after, under the authority of this grant, a ſmall colony fixed down near the mouth of Piſcataqua river. From this period we may date the ſettlement of NEW-HAMPSHIRE.

1627.] In 1627, a colony of Swedes and Fins came over and landed at Cape Henlopen; and afterwards purchaſed of the Indians the land from Cape Henlopen to the Falls of Delaware on both ſides the river, which they called *New Swedeland Stream*. On this river they built ſeveral forts, and made ſettlements.

1628.] On the 19th of March, 1628, the council for New-England ſold to Sir Henry Roſwell, and five others, a large tract of land, lying round Maſſachuſetts Bay. The June following, Capt. John Endicot, with his wife and company, came over and ſettled at Naumkeag, now called Salem. This was the firſt Engliſh ſettlement which was made in MASSACHUSETTS BAY. Plymouth, indeed, which is now included in the Commonwealth of Maſſachuſetts, was ſettled eight years before, but at this time it was a ſeparate colony, under a diſtinct government, and continued ſo until the ſecond charter of Maſſachuſetts was granted by William and Mary in 1691; by which Plymouth, the Province of Main and Sagadahok were annexed to Maſſachuſetts.

June 13, 1633.] In the reign of Charles the Firſt, Lord Baltimore, a Roman Catholic, applied for and obtained a grant of a tract of land upon

upon Chesapeek Bay, about one hundred and forty miles long and one hundred and thirty broad. Soon after this, in consequence of the rigor of the laws of England against the Roman Catholics, Lord Baltimore, with a number of his persecuted brethren, came over and settled it, and in honour of queen Henrietta Maria, they called it MARYLAND.

The first grant of Connecticut was made by Robert, Earl of Warwick, president of the council of Plymouth, to Lord Say and Seal, to
1631 Lord Brook and others, in the year 1631. In consequence of several smaller grants made afterwards by the patentees to particular persons, Mr. Fenwick made a settlement at the mouth of Con-
1635 necticut river, and called it *Saybrook*. Four years after a number of people from Massachusetts Bay came and began settlements at Hartford, Wethersfield, and Windsor on Connecticut river. Thus commenced the English settlement of CONNECTICUT.

Rhode Island was first settled in consequence of religious persecution. Mr. Roger Williams, who was among those who early came over to Massachusetts, not agreeing with some of his brethren in sentiment, was very unjustifiably banished the colony, and went with twelve others,
1955 his adherents, and settled at Providence in 1635. From this beginning arose the colony, now state of RHODE-ISLAND.

1664.] On the 20th of March, 1664, Charles the Second granted to the Duke of York, what is now called NEW-JERSEY, then a part of a large tract of country by the name of New-Netherland. Some parts of New-Jersey were settled by the Dutch as early as about 1615.

1662.] In the year 1662, Charles the Second granted to Edward, Earl of Clarendon, and seven others, almost the whole territory of the three Southern States, North and South Carolinas and Georgia. Two years
1664 after he granted a second charter, enlarging their boundaries. The proprietors, by virtue of authority vested in them by their charter, engaged Mr. Locke to frame a system of laws for the government of their intended colony. Notwithstanding these preparations, no
1669 effectual settlement was made until the year 1669, (though one was attempted in 1667) when Governor Sayle came over with a colony, and fixed on a neck of land between Ashley and Cooper Rivers. Thus commenced the settlement of CAROLINA, which then included the whole territory between the 29th and 36th ½ degrees north latitude, together with the Bahama Islands, lying between latitude 22° and 27° north.

1681.] The Royal charter for Pennsylvania was granted to William Penn on the 4th of March, 1681. The first colony came over the
1682 next year, and settled under the proprietor, William Penn, who acted as Governor from October 1682 to August 1684. The first assembly in the province of Pennsylvania was held at Chester, on the 4th of December, 1682. Thus William Penn, a Quaker, justly celebrated as a great and good man, has the honour of laying the foundation of the present populous and very flourishing STATE of PENNSYLVANIA.

The proprietory government in Carolina, was attended with so many inconveniencies, and occasioned such violent dissentions among the settlers, that the Parliament of Great-Britain was induced to take the province under their immediate care. The proprietors (except Lord Granville) accepted

accepted of £.22,500 ſterling, from the crown for the property and juriſdiction. This agreement was ratified by act of Parliament in
1729 1729. A clauſe in this act reſerved to Lord Granville his eighth ſhare of the property and arrears of quit-rents, which continued legally veſted in his family 'till the revolution in 1776. Lord Granville's ſhare made a part of the preſent ſtate of North Carolina. About the year 1729, the extenſive territory belonging to the proprietors, was divided into North and South Carolinas. They remained ſeparate royal governments until they became independent States.

For the relief of poor indigent people of Great Britain and Ireland, and for the ſecurity of Carolina, a project was formed for planting a colony between the rivers Savannah and Alatamaha. Accordingly application being made to king George the Second, he iſſued letters patent,
1732 bearing date June 9th, 1732, for legally carrying into execution the benevolent plan. In honour of the king, who greatly encouraged the plan, they called the new province GEORGIA. Twenty-one truſtees were appointed to conduct the affairs relating to the ſettlement of the province. The November following one hundred and fifteen perſons, one of whom was General Oglethorpe, embarked for Georgia, where they arrived, and landed at Yamacraw. In exploring the country, they found an elevated pleaſant ſpot of ground on the bank of a navigable river, upon which they marked out a town, and from the Indian name of the river which paſſed by it, called it Savannah. From this period we may date the ſettlement of GEORGIA.

1754.] Kentucky was firſt diſcovered by James Macbride, and ſome
1769 others who were in company with him, in the year 1754. Col. Daniel Boon explored it in 1769.

1773.] Four years after Col. Boon and his family, with five other families who were joined by forty men from Powle's valley, began the ſettlement of KENTUCKY, which is now one of the moſt growing colonies, perhaps, in the world, and will doubtleſs be erected into an independent ſtate, as ſoon as the new government ſhall have been properly organized.

The tract of country called VERMONT, before the late war, was claimed both by New-York and New-Hampſhire. When hoſtilities commenced between Great-Britain and her Colonies, the inhabitants conſidering themſelves as in a ſtate of nature, and not within any legal juriſdiction, aſſociated and formed for themſelves a conſtitution of civil government. Under this conſtitution, they have ever ſince continued to exerciſe all the powers of an independent State. Although Vermont has not been admitted into union with the other ſtates, nor her juriſdiction acknowledged to be legal by the ſtate of New-York, yet we may venture to date her political exiſtence as a ſeparate government, from the
1777 year 1777, becauſe, ſince that time, Vermont has, to all intents and purpoſes, been a ſovereign and independent State.

The extenſive tract of country lying northweſt of the Ohio River within the limits of the United States, was erected into a ſeparate *tempo-*
1787 *rary* government by an Ordinance of Congreſs paſſed the 13th of July, 1787.

Thus I have given a ſummary view of the firſt diſcoveries and progreſ-

ſive ſettlement of North America in their chronological order.—The following recapitulation will comprehend the whole in one view.

Names of places.	*When ſettled.*	*By whom.*
Quebeck,	1608	By the French.
Virginia,	June 10, 1609	By Lord De la War.
Newfoundland,	June, 1610	By Governor John Guy.
New-York, New-Jerſey,	about 1614	By the Dutch.
Plymouth,	1620	By part of Mr. Robinſon's congregation.
New-Hampſhire,	1623	By a ſmall Engliſh colony near the mouth of Piſcataqua river.
Delaware, Pennſylvania,	1627	By the Swedes and Fins.
Maſſachuſetts Bay,	1628	By Capt. John Endicot and company.
Maryland,	1633	By Lord Baltimore, with a colony of Roman Catholics.
Connecticut,	1635	By Mr. Fenwick, at Saybrook, near the mouth of Connecticut river.
Rhode-Iſland,	1635	By Mr. Roger Williams and his perſecuted brethren.
New-Jerſey,	1664	Granted to the Duke of York by Charles II. and made a diſtinct government, and ſettled ſome time before this by the Engliſh.
South-Carolina,	1669	By Governor Sayle.
Pennſylvania,	1682	By William Penn, with a colony of Quakers.
North-Carolina,	about 1728	Erected into a ſeparate government, ſettled before by the Engliſh.
Georgia,	1732	By General Oglethorpe.
Kentucky,	1773	By Col. Daniel Boon.
Vermont,	1777	By emigrants from Connecticut and other parts of New-England.
Territory N. W. of Ohio river,	1787	By the Ohio and other companies.

The above dates are from the periods, when the firſt permanent ſettlements were made.

NORTH AMERICA comprehends all that part of the weſtern continent which lies north of the Iſthmus of Darien. This vaſt extent of country is divided between Spain, Great-Britain, and the Thirteen United States. Spain claims all the land weſt of the Miſſiſſippi, and Eaſt and Weſt Florida. According to the treaty of 1783, all the country north of the northern boundary of the United States, and eaſt of the river St. Croix, belongs to Great Britain. The remaining part is the territory of the *Thirteen United and Independent States.*

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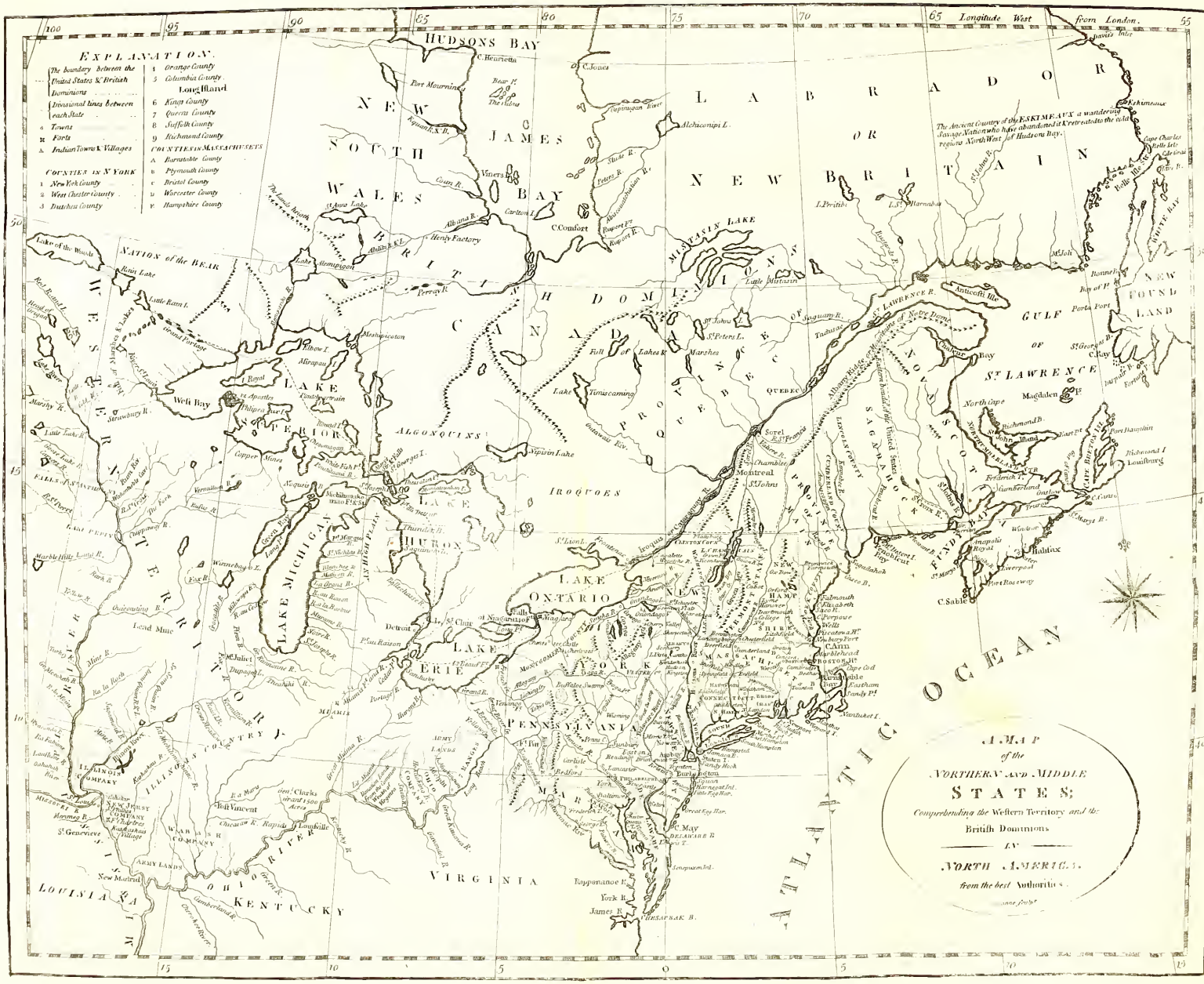
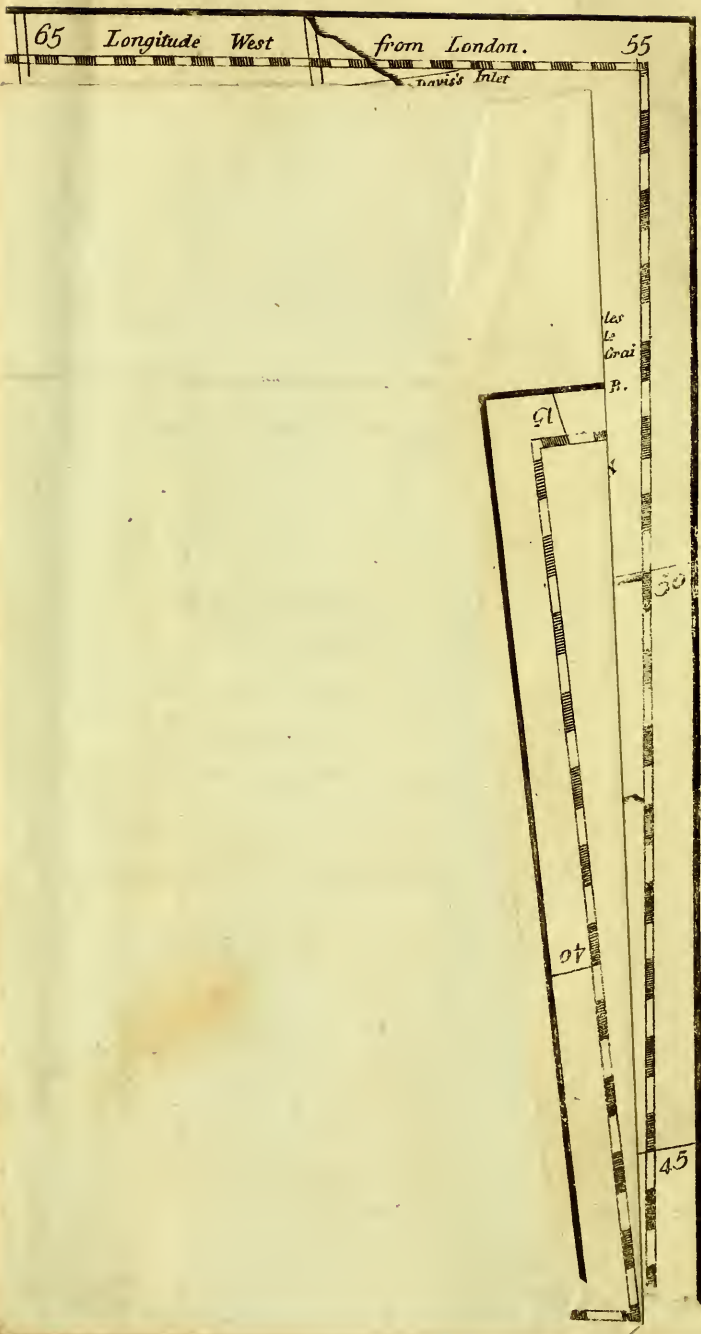

EXPLANATION.
The boundary between the United States & British Dominions
Divisional lines between each State
a Towns
x Forts
b Indian Towns & Villages
COUNTIES IN NEW YORK
1 New York County
2 West Chester County
3 Dutchess County
4 Orange County
5 Columbia County
Long Island
6 Kings County
7 Queens County
8 Suffolk County
9 Richmond County
COUNTIES IN MASSACHUSETS
A Barnstable County
B Plymouth County
C Bristol County
D Worcester County
E Hampshire County
Longitude West from London.
HUDSONS BAY
NEW SOUTH WALES
JAMES BAY
LABRADOR OR NEW BRITAIN
BRITISH DOMINIONS IN CANADA
PROVINCE OF QUEBEC
NOVA SCOTIA
NEW FOUNDLAND
GULF OF St LAWRENCE
ATLANTIC OCEAN
LAKE SUPERIOR
LAKE MICHIGAN
LAKE HURON
LAKE ONTARIO
LAKE ERIE
LAKE MISTASSINS
NATION of the BEAR
ALGONQUINS
IROQUOIS
NEW YORK
PENNSYLVANIA
VIRGINIA
KENTUCKY
LOUISIANA
A MAP of the NORTHERN AND MIDDLE STATES; Comprehending the Western Territory and the British Dominions IN NORTH AMERICA. from the best Authorities.
Engraved for Morse's Geography Published by John Jones Dublin Aug.st 6th 1792.


65 Longitude West from London. 55
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DIVISIONS OF NORTH AMERICA.

Names of States and Colonies.	length	breadth.	lat. captl. towns.	lon. from Philadel.	chief towns.	distance and bearing from Philadelphia.	belonging to	No. of inhabitants.	census taken.
New-Hampshire,	180	60	43,5	38,54	E. Portsmouth.	408 N. E.	Thirteen United States, lying along the sea coast from north-east to south-west.	102,000*	1787
Massachusetts,	450	164	42,25	3,39	E. Boston.	343 N. E.		360,000*	1787
Rhode-Island,	68	40	41,30	3,24	E. New-port.	280 E. N. E.		51,896	1783
Connecticut,	81	57	41,19	1,56	E. New-Haven.	181 N. E.		209,150	1782
New-York,	350	300	40,40	1,5	E. New-York.	95 E. N. E.		238,897	1786
New-Jersey,	160	52	40,15	0,23	E. Trenton.	30 N. E.		149,435	1784
Pennsylvania,	288	156	39,56	00,00	Philadelphia.	00		360,000*	1787
Delaware,	92	16	39,10	00,25	W. Dover.	72 S. S. W.		37,000*	1787
Maryland,	134	110	39,2	1,37	W. Annapolis.	132 S. W.		253,630	1782
Virginia,	758	224	37,40	2,42	W. Richmond.	276 S. W.		567,614	1782
North-Carolina,	758	110	36,04	1,52	W. Edenton.	442 S. S. W.		270,000*	1787
South-Carolina,	200	125	32,35	5,00	W. Charleston.	814 S. S. W.		180,000*	1787
Georgia.	600	250	33,39	7,00	W. Augusta.	934 S. W.		98,000*	1787
Vermont,	155	60	42,42	1,44	E. Bennington.	299 N. E.	Separate gov'ts in the United States.	100,000*	1788
Western territory,	1000	450	39,34	6,30	W. Adelphi.	492 W.		6,000*	1788
Kentucky.	included in Virg.		38,25	10,00	W. Lexington.	947 by water. W.		100,000*	1788
							Total	3,083,622	
Province of Quebec,	750	200	46,55	4,56	E. Quebec.	690 N. N. E.	Great-Britain.		
Nova-Scotia,	300	250	44,56	14,29	E. Halifax.	925 N. E.	do.		
E. and W. Floridas	600	130	29,51	6,30	W. Augustine.	1146 S. S. W.	Spain.	unknown.	
Louisiana,	indefinite.		29,57	14,40	W. New Orleans.	1646 S. W.	do.	unknown.	
New-Mexico,	indefinite.		36,45	3,32	W. St. Fee.	2190 W.	do.	unknown.	
California,	765	212	26,5	39	W. St. Juan.	3396 W. S. W.	do.	unknown.	
Old Mexico,	2700	250	20,0	26	W. Mexico.	3021 S. W.	do.	unknown.	

N. B. In the column containing the number of inhabitants, the number marked (*) are as reckoned in the Convention at Philadelphia in 1787, excepting North-Carolina, Vermont, Western-Territory, and Kentucky; the others are taken from actual enumeration.

The distances of the several capitals from Philadelphia are reckoned as the roads run.

The UNITED STATES.

SITUATION and EXTENT.

	miles.		
Length	1250	Between	31° and 46° North Latitude.
Breadth	1040		8° E. and 24° W. Long. from Philadelphia.

Boundaries.] IN the treaty of peace, concluded in 1783, the limits of the United States are thus defined. "And that all diſputes which might ariſe in future on the ſubject of the boundaries of the ſaid United States may be prevented, it is hereby agreed and declared, that the following are and ſhall be their boundaries, viz. From the north-weſt angle of Nova-Scotia, viz. That angle which is formed by a line drawn due north from the ſource of St. Croix River to the Highlands, along the ſaid Highlands, which divide thoſe rivers that empty themſelves into the river St. Lawrence, from thoſe which fall into the Atlantic Ocean, to the north-weſternmoſt head of Connecticut river; thence down along the middle of that river to the forty-fifth degree of north latitude; from thence by a line due weſt on ſaid latitude, until it ſtrikes the river Iroquois or Cataraquy; thence along the middle of the ſaid river into Lake Ontario, through the middle of ſaid Lake, until it ſtrikes the communication by water between the lake and Lake Erie; thence along the middle of ſaid communication into Lake Erie, through the middle of ſaid Lake Huron; thence through the middle of ſaid lake to the water communication between that lake and Lake Superior; thence through Lake Superior northward of the Iſles Royal and Phillipeaux to the Long Lake; thence through the middle of ſaid Long Lake, and the water communication between it and the Lake of the Woods to the ſaid Lake of the Woods; thence through the ſaid lake to the moſt northweſtern point thereof, and from thence, on a due weſt courſe, to the River Miſſiſſippi; thence by a line to be drawn along the middle of ſaid River Miſſiſſippi, until it ſhall interſect the northernmoſt part of the thirty-firſt degree of north latitude. South, by a line to be drawn due eaſt from the determination of the line laſt mentioned, in the latitude of thirty-one degrees north of the equator, to the middle of the River Apalachicola, or Catahouche; thence along the middle thereof to its junction with the Flint River; thence ſtrait to the head of St. Mary's River; and thence down along the middle of St. Mary's River to the Atlantic Ocean; eaſt, by a line to be drawn along the middle of the River St. Croix, from its mouth in the Bay of Fundy, to its ſource; and from its ſource directly north, to the aforeſaid Highlands, which divide the rivers that fall into the Atlantic Ocean, from thoſe which fall into the River St. Lawrence, comprehending all iſlands within twenty leagues of any part of the ſhores of the United States, and lying between lines to be drawn due eaſt from the points where the aforeſaid boundaries between Nova-Scotia on the one part, and Eaſt-Florida on the other, ſhall reſpectively touch the Bay of Fundy and the Atlantic Ocean, excepting ſuch Iſlands as now are or heretofore have been, within the limits of the ſaid province of Nova-Scotia."

The

The following calculations were made from actual measurement of the beſt maps, by THOMAS HUTCHINS, *Eſquire, geographer to the United States.*

The territory of the United States contains by computation a million of ſquare miles, in which are 640,000,000 of acres.
Deduct for water 51,000,000

Acres of land in the United States, 589,000,000

That part of the United States comprehended between the weſt temporary line of Pennſylvania on the eaſt, the boundary line between Britain and the United States, extending from the river St. Croix to the north-weſt extremity of the Lake of the Woods on the north, the river Miſſiſſippi, to the mouth of the Ohio on the weſt, and the river Ohio on the ſouth to the aforementioned bounds of Pennſylvania, contains by computation about four hundred and eleven thouſand ſquare miles, in which are 263,040,000 acres.
Deduct for water 43,040,000

To be diſpoſed of by order of Congreſs, 220,000,000 of acres.

The whole of this immenſe extent of unappropriated weſtern territory, containing, as above ſtated, 220,000,000 of acres, has been, by the ceſſion of ſome of the original thirteen ſtates, and by the treaty of peace, transferred to the federal government, and is pledged as a fund for ſinking the continental debt. It is in contemplation to divide it into new ſtates, with republican conſtitutions ſimilar to the old ſtates near the Atlantic Ocean.

Eſtimate of the number of acres of water, north and weſtward of the river Ohio, within the territory of the United States.

	Acres.
In Lake Superior,	21,952,780
Lake of the Woods,	1,133,800
Lake Rain, &c.	165,200
Red Lake,	551,000
Lake Michigan,	10,368,000
Bay Puan,	1,216,000
Lake Huron,	5,009,920
Lake St. Clair,	89,500
Lake Erie, weſtern part	2,252,800
Sundry ſmall lakes and rivers,	301,000
	43,040,000

Eſtimate of the number of acres of water within the Thirteen United States.

In Lake Erie, weſtward of the line extended from the north-weſt corner of Pennſylvania, due north, to the boundary between the Britiſh territory and the United States, 410,000

Brought forward,		43,040,000
Brought forward,	410,000	
In Lake Ontario,	2,390,000	
Lake Champlain,	500,000	
Cheſapeek bay,	1,700,000	
Albemarle bay,	330,000	
Delaware bay	630,000	
All the rivers within the thirteen ſtates, including the Ohio,	2,000,000	
		7,960,000
Total		51,000,000

Lakes and Rivers.] It may in truth be ſaid, that no part of the world is ſo well watered with ſprings, rivulets, rivers, and lakes, as the territory of the United States. By means of theſe various ſtreams and collections of water, the whole country is checkered into iſlands and peninſulas. The United States, and indeed all parts of North America, ſeem to have been formed by nature for the moſt intimate union. The facilities of navigation render the communication between the ports of Georgia and New-Hampſhire, infinitely more expeditious and practicable, than between thoſe of Provence and Picardy in France; Cornwall and Caithneſs, in Great-Britain; or Gallicia and Catalonia, in Spain. The canals propoſed at South-Key, Suſquehannah, and Delaware, will open a communication from the Carolinas to the weſtern counties of Pennſylvania and New-York. The improvements of the Patomak, will give a paſſage from the ſouthern States, to the weſtern parts of Virginia, Maryland, Pennſylvania, and even to the lakes. From Detroit, on Lake Erie, to Alexdria, on the Patomak, ſix hundred and ſeven miles, are but two carrying places, which together do not exceed the diſtance of forty miles. The canals of Delaware and Cheſapeek will open the communication from South-Carolina to New-Jerſey, Delaware, the moſt populous parts of Pennſylvania, and the midland counties of New-York. Theſe important works might be effected, an accurate and well informed computer ſuppoſes, for two hundred thouſand guineas; and North-America would thereby be converted into a cluſter of large and fertile iſlands, communicating with each other with eaſe and little expence, and in many inſtances without the uncertainty or danger of the ſea.

There is nothing in other parts of the globe which reſembles the prodigious chain of lakes in this part of the world. They may properly be termed inland ſeas of freſh water; and even thoſe of the ſecond or third claſs in magnitude, are of larger circuit than the greateſt lake in the eaſtern continent. The beſt account of thoſe lakes that I have ſeen, is in Carver's Travels in North America. This book is my authority for the deſcriptions which follow.

The Lake of the Woods is ſo called from the large quantities of wood growing on its banks; ſuch as oaks, pines, firs, ſpruce, &c. This lake lies nearly eaſt of the ſouth end of Lake Winnepeek, and is the ſource or conductor of one branch of the river Bourbon. Its length from eaſt to weſt

is

is about ſeventy miles, and in ſome places it is forty miles wide. The Killiſtinoe Indians encamp on its borders to fiſh and hunt. This lake is the communication between the Lakes Winnepeek and Bourbon, and Lake Superior.

Rainy or Long Lake lies eaſt of the Lake of the Woods, and is nearly an hundred miles long, and in no part more than twenty miles wide.

Eaſtward of this lake, lie ſeveral ſmall ones, which extend in a ſtring to the great carrying place, and thence into Lake Superior. Between theſe little lakes are ſeveral carrying places, which render the trade to the north-weſt difficult, and exceedingly tedious, as it takes two years to make one voyage from Michillimackinac to theſe parts.

Lake Superior, formerly termed the Upper Lake, from its northern ſituation, is ſo called from its magnitude, it being the largeſt on the continent. It may juſtly be termed the Caſpian of America, and is ſuppoſed to be the largeſt body of freſh water on the globe. Accordingly to the French charts it is fifteen hundred miles in circumference; Carver ſuppoſes that if the utmoſt extent of every bay was taken, it would exceed ſixteen hundred. A great part of the coaſt is bounded by rocks and uneven ground. The water is pure and tranſparent, and appears generally, throughout the lake, to lie upon a bed of huge rocks. It is worthy of remark, in regard to the waters of this lake, that although their ſurface, during the heat of ſummer, is impregnated with no ſmall degree of warmth, yet on letting down a cup to the depth of about a fathom, the water drawn from thence is ſo exceſſively cold, that, when taken into the mouth, it has the ſame effect as ice.

The ſituation of this lake, from the moſt accurate obſervations which have yet been made, lies between forty-ſix and fifty degrees of north latitude, and between nine and eighteen degrees of weſt longitude from the meridian of Philadelphia.

There are many iſlands in this lake, two of them have each land enough, if proper for cultivation to form a conſiderable province; eſpecially Iſle Royal, which is not leſs than an hundred miles long, and in many places forty broad. The natives ſuppoſe theſe iſlands are the reſidence of the Great Spirit.

Two very large rivers empty themſelves into this lake, on the north and north-eaſt ſide; one is called the Nipegon, which leads to a tribe of the Chipeways, who inhabit a lake of the ſame name, and the other, is the Michipicooton river, the ſource of which is towards James's Bay, from whence there is but a ſhort portage to another river, which empties itſelf unto that bay.

Not far from the Nipegon is a ſmall river, that, juſt before it enters the lake, has a perpendicular fall from the top of a mountain, of more than ſix hundred feet. It is very narrow, and appears at a diſtance like a white garter ſuſpended in the air. There are upwards of thirty other rivers which empty into this lake, ſome of which are of a conſiderable ſize. On the ſouth ſide of it is a remarkable point or cape of about ſixty miles in length, called Point Chegomegan. About an hundred miles weſt of this cape, a conſiderable river falls into the lake, the head of which is compoſed of a great aſſemblage of ſmall ſtreams. This river is remarkable for the abundance of virgin copper that is found on and near its banks.

Many

Many ſmall iſlands, particularly on the eaſtern ſhores, abound with copper ore lying in beds, with the appearance of copperas. This metal might be eaſily made a very advantageous article of commerce, as it coſts nothing on the ſpot, and requires but little expence to get it on board boats or canoes, in which it might be conveyed through the falls of St. Marie to the Iſle of St. Joſeph, which lies at the bottom of the ſtraits near the entrance into Lake Huron, thence into Lake Ontario, from which it may be conveyed by water into the Mohawks river, except two portages, one of twenty yards, and the other of about a mile; down Mohawks river in the Hudſon, except the portage at the Cohoes; thence to New-York. The cheapneſs and eaſe with which any quantity of the ore may be procured, will make up for the diſtance and expence of tranſportation. This lake abounds with fiſh, particularly trout and ſturgeon; the former weigh from twelve to fifty pounds, and are caught almoſt any ſeaſon of the year in great plenty. Storms affect this lake as much as they do the Atlantic Ocean; the waves run as high, and the navigation is equally dangerous. It diſcharges its waters from the ſouth-eaſt corner through the Straits of St. Marie, which are about forty miles long. Near the upper end of theſe ſtraits is a rapid, which, though it is impoſſible for canoes to aſcend, yet, when conducted by careful pilots, may be deſcended without danger.

Though Lake Superior is ſupplied by near forty rivers, many of which are large, yet it does not appear that one tenth part of the waters which are conveyed into it by theſe rivers, is diſcharged by the abovementioned ſtrait. How ſuch a ſuperabundance of water can be diſpoſed of, remains a ſecret. They doubtleſs have a paſſage through ſome ſubterraneous cavities, deep, unfathomable, and never to be explored. The entrance into this lake from the ſtraits of St. Marie, affords one of the moſt pleaſing proſpects in the world. On the left may be ſeen many beautiful little iſlands, that extend a conſiderable way before you; and on the right, an agreable ſucceſſion of ſmall points of land, that project a little way into the water, and contribute, with the iſlands, to render this delightful baſon calm, and ſecure from thoſe tempeſtuous winds, by which the adjoining lake is frequently troubled.

Lake Huron, into which you enter through the ſtraits of St. Marie, is next in magnitude to Lake Superior. It lies between forty-two and forty-ſix degrees of north latitude, and between four and ten degrees weſt longitude, Its ſhape is nearly triangular, and its circumference about one thouſand miles. On the north ſide of this lake is an iſland one hundred miles in length, and no more than eight miles broad. It is called Manataulin, ſignifying a place of ſpirits, and is conſidered as ſacred by the Indians. About the middle of the ſouth-weſt ſide of this lake is Saganaum Bay, about eighty miles in length, and about eighteen or twenty miles broad. Thunder Bay, ſo called from the continual thunder that is heard there, lies about half way between Saganaum Bay and the north-weſt corner of the lake. It is about nine miles acroſs either way. The fiſh are the ſame as in Lake Superior. The promontory that ſeparates this lake from Lake Michigan, is a vaſt plain, more than one hundred miles long and varying from ten to fifteen miles in breadth. This plain is about equally divided between the Ottowaw and Chipeway Indians. At the north-eaſt corner, this lake communicates with Lake Michigan, by the Straits of Michillimackinac. It is remarkable, that although there is no

diurnal

diurnal flood or ebb to be perceived in the waters of these straits, yet from an exact attention to their state, a periodical alteration in them has been discovered. It has been observed that they rise by gradual, but almost imperceptible degrees, till in seven years and an half they had reached the height of about three feet; and in the same space of time, they gradually fell to their former state, so that in fifteen years they had completed this inexplicable revolution.

The Chipeway Indians live scattered around this lake; particularly near Saganaum Bay. On its banks are found amazing quantities of sand cherries.

Lake St. Claire lies about half way between Lake Huron and Lake Erie, and is about ninety miles in circumference. It receives the waters of the three great lakes, Superior, Michigan and Huron, and discharges them through the river or strait, called Detroit, (which is in French the Strait) into Lake Erie. This lake is of a circular form, and navigable for large vessels, except a bar of sand towards the middle which prevents loaded vessels from passing. The cargoes of such as are freighted must be taken out, and carried across the bar in boats, and reshiped. The town of Detroit is situated on the western bank of the river of the same name, about nine miles below Lake St. Claire.

Lake Erie is situated between forty-one and forty-three degrees of north-latitude, and between three and eight degrees west longitude. It is nearly three hundred miles long, from east to west, and about forty in its broadest part. A point of land projects from the north side into this lake, several miles, towards the south-east. The islands and banks towards the west end of the lake are so infested with rattle-snakes as to render it dangerous to land on them. The lake is covered near the banks of the islands with the large pond lily; the leaves of which lie on the surface of the water so thick, as to cover it entirely for many acres together; on these, in the summer season, lie myriads of water-snakes basking in the sun.

Of the venomous serpents which infest this lake, the hissing snake is the most remarkable. It is about eighteen inches long, small and speckled. When you approach it, it flattens itself in a moment, and its spots, which are of various colours, become visibly brighter through rage; at the same time it blows from its mouth, with great force, a subtil wind, said to be of a nauseous smell; and if drawn in with the breath of the unwary traveller, will infallibly bring on a decline, that in a few months must prove mortal. No remedy has yet been found to counteract its baneful influence. This lake is of a more dangerous navigation than any of the others on account of the craggy rocks which project into the water in a perpendicular direction, many miles together, affording no shelter from storms. This Lake at its north-east end communicates with Lake Ontario, by the river Niagara, which runs from south to north about thirty miles. At the entrance of this river, on its eastern shore, is Fort Niagara, which is at present, contrary to the treaty of 1783, in possession of the British government, as are most of our north-western posts. About eighteen miles north of this fort, are those remarkable falls which are reckoned one of the greatest natural curiosities in the world. The waters which supply the river Niagara rise near two thousand miles to the north-west, and passing through the lakes Superior, and Michigan, Huron and Erie, receiving

ing in their courſe, conſtant accumulations, at length, with aſtoniſhing grandeur, ruſh down a ſtupendous precipice of one hundred and forty feet perpendicular; and in a ſtrong rapid, that extends to the diſtance of eight or nine miles below, fall near as much more; the river then loſes itſelf in Lake Ontario. The noiſe of theſe falls, (called the *Niagara Falls*) in a clear day and fair wind may be heard, between forty and fifty miles. When the water ſtrikes the bottom, it bounds to a great height in the air, occaſioning a thick cloud of vapours, on which the ſun, when it ſhines, paints a beautiful rainbow.

Lake Ontario is ſituated between forty-three and forty-five degrees of latitude, and between one and four weſt longitude. Its form is nearly oval. Its greateſt length is from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, and in circumference about ſix hundred miles. It abounds with fiſh of an excellent flavour, among which are the Oſwego baſs, weighing three of four pounds. Near the South-eaſt part it receives the waters of the Oſwego river, and on the north eaſt-it diſcharges it itſelf into the river Cataraqui, or as it is now more commonly called, Iroquois. This river, at Montreal, takes the name of St. Lawrence, and paſſing by Quebec, empties into the Gulf of the ſame name.

Lake Champlain is next in ſize to Lake Ontario, and lies nearly eaſt from it, dividing the ſtate of New York from that of Vermont. It is about eighty miles in length from north to ſouth, and in its broadeſt part, fourteen. It is well ſtored with fiſh, and the land on its borders, and on the banks of its rivers, are good. Crown Point and Ticonderoga are ſituated on the bank of this lake, near the ſouthern part of it.

Lake George lies ſouth-weſt of Lake Champlain, and is about thirty-five miles long from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt but narrow.—The adjacent country is mountainous; the vallies are tolerably good.

The Miſſiſſippi is the great reſervoir of the waters of the Ohio and Illinois, and their numerous branches from the eaſt; and of the Miſſouri and other rivers from the weſt. Theſe mighty ſtreams united, are borne down with increaſing majeſty, through vaſt foreſts and meadows, and diſcharged into the Gulf of Mexico. For an ingenious, beautiful and authentic deſcription of this river, take the following, given by Mr. Hutchins, geographer to the United States. The great length and uncommon depth of this river, and the exceſſive muddineſs and ſalubrious quality of its waters, after its junction with the Miſſouri, are very ſingular*. The direction of the channel is ſo crooked, that from New Orleans to the mouth of the Ohio, a diſtance which does not exceed four hundred and ſixty miles in a ſtrait line, is about eight hundred and fifty-ſix by water. It may be ſhortened at leaſt two hundred and fifty miles, by cutting acroſs eight or ten necks of land, ſome of which are not thirty yards wide. Charlevoix relates that in the year 1772, at Point Coupeé, or Cut Point, the

* *In a half pint tumbler of this water has been found a ſediment of two inches of ſlime. It is, notwithſtanding, extremely wholeſome and well taſted, and very cool in the hotteſt ſeaſons of the year; the rowers, who are there employed, drink of it when they are in the ſtrongeſt perſpiration, and never receive any bad effects from it. The inhabitants of New Orleans uſe no other water than that of the river, which, by being kept in jars, becomes perfectly clear.*

the river made a great turn, and ſome Canadians by deepening the channel of a ſmall brook, diverted the waters of the river into it. The impetuoſity of the ſtream was ſo violent, and the ſoil of ſo rich and looſe a quality, that in a ſhort time, the point was entirely cut through, and travellers ſaved fourteen leagues of their voyage. The old bed has no water in it, the times of the periodical overflowing only excepted. The new channel has been ſince ſounded with a line of thirty fathoms, without finding a bottom.

In the ſpring floods the Miſſiſſippi is very high, and the current ſo ſtrong, that with difficulty it can be aſcended; but that diſadvantage is compenſated by eddies or counter-currents, which always run in the bends cloſe to the banks of the river, with nearly equal velocity againſt the ſtream, and aſſiſt the aſcending boats. The current at this ſeaſon deſcends at the rate of about five miles an hour. In autumn, when the waters are low, it does not run faſter than two miles, but it is rapid in ſuch parts of the river, as have cluſters of iſlands, ſhoals, and ſand-banks. The circumference of many of theſe ſhoals being ſeveral miles, the voyage is longer, and in ſome parts more dangerous than in the ſpring. The merchandize neceſſary for the commerce of the upper ſettlements on or near the Miſſiſſippi, is conveyed in the ſpring and autumn in batteaux, rowed by eighteen or twenty men, and carrying about forty tons. From New Orleans to the Illinois, the voyage is commonly performed in eight or ten weeks. A prodigious number of iſlands, ſome of which are of great extent, interſperſe that mighty river. Its depth increaſes as you aſcend it. Its waters, after overflowing its banks below the river Ibberville, never return within them again. Theſe ſingularities diſtinguiſh it from every other known river in the world. Below New Orleans, the land begins to be very low on both ſides of the river acroſs the country, and gradually declines as it approaches nearer to the ſea. This point of land, which in the treaty of peace in 1762, was miſtaken for an iſland, is to all appearance of no long date; for in digging ever ſo little below the ſurface, you find water and great quantities of trees. The many beeches and breakers, as well as inlets, which aroſe out of the channel within the laſt half century, at the ſeveral mouths of the river, are convincing proofs that this peninſula was wholly formed in the ſame manner. And it is certain that when La Salle ſailed down the Miſſiſſippi to the ſea, the opening of that river was very different from what it is at preſent.

The nearer you approach to the ſea, this truth becomes more ſtriking. The bars that croſs moſt of theſe ſmall channels opened by the current, have been multiplied by means of the trees carried down with the ſtreams; one of which ſtopped by its roots or branches in a ſhallow part, is ſufficient to obſtruct the paſſage of thouſands more, and to fix them at the ſame place. Such collections of trees are daily ſeen between the Balize and the Miſſouri, which ſingly would ſupply the largeſt city in America with fuel for ſeveral years. No human force being ſufficient for removing them, the mud carried down by the river ſerves to bind and cement them together. They are gradually covered, and every inundation not only extends their length and breadth, but adds another layer to their height. In leſs than ten years time, canes and ſhrubs grow on them, and form points and iſlands, which forcibly ſhift the bed of the river.

Nothing

Nothing can be aſſerted with certainty, reſpecting its length. Its ſource is not known, but ſuppoſed to be upwards of three thouſand miles from the ſea as the river runs. We only know, that from St. Anthony's falls, it glides with a pleaſant, clear ſtream, and becomes comparatively narrow before its junction with the Miſſouri, the muddy waters of which immediately diſcolour the lower part of the river to the ſea. Its rapidity, breadth, and other peculiarities then begin to give it the majeſtic appearance of the Miſſouri, which affords a more extenſive navigation, and is a longer, broader, and deeper river than the Miſſiſſippi. It is in fact the principal river, contributing more to the common ſtream than does the Miſſiſſippi, even after its junction with the Illinois. It has been aſcended by French traders about twelve or thirteen hundred miles, and from the depth of water, and breadth of the river at that diſtance, it appeared to be navigable many miles further.

From the Miſſouri river, to nearly oppoſite the Ohio, the weſtern bank of the Miſſiſſippi, is (ſome few places excepted) higher than the eaſtern. From Mine au fer to the Ibberville, the eaſtern bank is higher than the weſtern, on which there is not a ſingle diſcernible riſing or eminence, the diſtance of ſeven hundred and fifty miles. From the Ibberville to the ſea there are no eminences on either ſide, though the eaſtern bank appears rather the higheſt of the two, as far as the Engliſh turn. Thence the banks gradually diminiſh in height to the mouths of the river, where they are not more than two or three feet higher than the common ſurface of the water.

The ſlime which the annual floods of the river Miſſiſſippi leaves on the ſurface of the adjacent ſhores, may be compared with that of the Nile, which depoſits a ſimilar manure, and for many centuries paſt has inſured the fertility of Egypt. When its banks ſhall have been cultivated as the excellency of its ſoil and temperature of the climate deſerve, its population will equal that of any other part of the world. The trade, wealth, and power of America, will, at ſome future period, depend, and perhaps centre upon the Miſſiſſippi. This alſo reſembles the Nile in the number of its mouths, all iſſuing into a ſea that may be compared to the Mediterranean, which is bounded on the north and ſouth by the two continents of Europe and Africa, as the Mexican Bay is by North and South America. The ſmaller mouths of this river, might be eaſily ſtopped up, by means of thoſe floating trees with which the river during the floods, is always covered. The whole force of the channel being united, the only opening then left would probably grow deep as well as the bar.

Mr. Carver has travelled higher up this river, and appears to be better acquainted with its northern parts and ſource, than any European or American, who has publiſhed his obſervations. He is my authority for what follows.

The falls of St. Anthony, in about latitude 44° 30', received their name from Father Lewis Hennipin, a French miſſionary, who travelled into theſe parts about the year one thouſand ſix hundred and eighty, and was the firſt European ever ſeen by the natives. The whole river, which is more than two hundred and fifty yards wide, falls perpendicularly about thirty feet, and forms a moſt pleaſing cataract. The rapids below, in the ſpace of three hundred yards, render the deſcent conſiderably greater; ſo that

that when viewed at a distance, they appear to be much higher than they really are. In the middle of the falls is a small island, about forty feet broad, and somewhat longer, on which grow a few cragged hemlock and spruce trees; and about half way between this island and the eastern shore is a rock, lying at the very edge of the fall, in an oblique position, five or six feet broad, and thirty or forty long. These falls are peculiarly situated, as they are approachable without the least obstruction from any intervening hill or precipice, which cannot be said of any other considerable fall that I know of in the world. The country around is exceedingly beautiful. It is not an interrupted plain where the eye finds no relief, but composed of many gentle ascents, which in the spring and summer are covered with verdure, and interspersed with little groves, that give a pleasing variety to the prospect.

A little distance below the falls, is a small island of about an acre and an half, on which grow a great number of oak trees, almost all the branches of which, able to bear the weight, are, in the proper season of the year, loaded with eagles nests. Their instinctive wisdom has taught them to choose this place, as it is secure, on account of the rapids above, from the attacks either of man or beast.

The Mississippi has never been explored higher up than the river St. Francis; so that we are obliged to the Indians for all the intelligence relative to the more northern parts.

Mr. Carver relates, that from the best accounts he could obtain from the Indians, together with his own observations, he had learned that the four most capital rivers on the continent of North America, viz. the St. Lawrence, the Mississippi, the river Bourbon, and the Oregon, or the river of the West, have their sources in the same neighbourhood. The waters of the three former, are within thirty miles of each other; the latter is rather farther west.

This shews that these parts are the highest lands in North America; and it is an instance not to be parralleled in the other three quarters of the globe, that four rivers of such magnitude should take their rise together, and each, after running separate courses, discharge their waters into different oceans, at the distance of more than two thousand miles from their sources. For in their passage from this spot to the bay of St. Lawrence, east; to the Bay of Mexico, south; to Hudson's Bay, north; and to the bay at the straits of Annian, west; where the river Origon is supposed to empty, each of them traverses upwards of two thousand miles.

Mr. Jefferson, whose extensive and accurate information ranks him among the first authorities, in his notes on Virginia, has given a description of the river Ohio, and annexed such remarks on the situation of the western waters as will throw great light on this part of our subject, and may not be omitted. His observations, together with those already made, will afford the reader a comprehensive and pretty complete view of the internal navigation of the United States.

'The Ohio is the most beautiful river on earth: its current gentle, waters clear, and bosom smooth and unbroken by rocks and rapids, a single instance only excepted. It is one quarter of a mile wide at Fort Pitt: five hundred yards at the mouth of the Great Kanhaway: one mile and twenty-five poles at Louisville: one quarter of a mile on the rapids, three

or

or four miles below Louiſville: half a mile where the low country begins, which is twenty miles above Green river: one mile and a quarter at the receipt of the Taniſſee: and a mile wide at the mouth.

Its length, as meaſured according to its meanders by Capt. Hutchins, is as follows:

From Fort Pitt	Miles.		Miles.
To Log's town	18 ½	To Little Miami	126 ¼
Big Beaver Creek	10 ¾	Licking Creek	8
Little Beaver Creek	13 ½	Great Miami	26 ¾
Yellow Creek	11 ¾	Big Bones	32 ½
Two Creeks	21 ¼	Kentucky	44 ¼
Long Reach	53 ¾	Rapids	77 ¼
End Long Reach	16 ½	Low Country	155 ¾
Muſkingum	25 ½	Buffalo River	64 ½
Little Kanhaway	12 ¼	Wabaſh	97 ¼
Hockhocking	16	Big Cave	42 ¾
Great Kanhaway	82 ½	Shawanee River	52 ½
Guiandot	43 ¾	Cherokee River	13
Sandy Creek	14 ½	Maſſac	11
Sioto	48 ¾	Miſſiſſippi	46
			1188

In common winter and ſpring tides it affords fifteen feet water to Louiſville, ten feet to La Tarte's rapids, forty miles above the mouth of the Great Kanhaway, and a ſufficiency at all times for light batteaux and canoes to Fort Pitt. The rapids are in the latitude 38° 8′. The inundations of this river begin about the laſt of March, and ſubſide in July. During theſe a firſt rate man of war may be carried from Louiſville to New Orleans, if the ſudden turns of the river and the ſtrength of its current will admit a ſafe ſteerage. The rapids at Louiſville deſcend about thirty feet in a length of a mile and a half. The bed of the river there, is a ſolid rock, and is divided by an iſland into two branches, the ſouthern of which is about two hundred yards wide, and is dry four months in the year. The bed of the northern branch is worn into channels by the conſtant courſe of the water, and attrition of the pebble ſtones carried on with that, ſo as to be paſſable for batteaux through the greater part of the year. Yet it is thought that the ſouthern arm may be the moſt eaſily opened for conſtant navigation. The riſe of the waters in theſe rapids does not exceed ten or twelve feet. A part of this iſland is ſo high as to have been never overflowed, and to command the ſettlement at Louiſville, which is oppoſite to it. The fort, however, is ſituated at the head of the falls. The ground on the ſouth ſide riſes very gradually.

At Fort Pitt the river Ohio loſes its name, branching into the Monongahela and Allegany.

The Monongahela is four hundred yards wide at its mouth. From thence is twelve or fifteen miles to the mouth of Yohogany, where it is three hundred yards wide. Thence to Redſtone by water is fifty miles, by land thirty. Then to the mouth of Cheat river by water forty miles, by land twenty-eight, the width continuing at three hundred yards, and the

the navigation good for boats. Thence the width is about two hundred yards to the weſtern fork, fifty miles higher, and the navigation frequently interrupted by rapids; which however with a ſwell of two or three feet, become very paſſable for boats. It then admits light boats, except in dry ſeaſons, ſixty-five miles further to the head of Tygarts valley, preſenting only ſome ſmall rapids and falls of one or two feet perpendicular, and leſſening in its width to twenty yards. The Weſtern fork is navigable in the winter ten or fifteen miles towards the northern of the Little Kanhaway, and will admit a good waggon road to it. The Yohogany is the principal branch of this river. It paſſes through the Laurel mountain about thirty miles from its mouth; is ſo far from three hundred to one hundred and fifty yards wide, and the navigation much obſtructed in dry weather by rapids and ſhoals. In its paſſage through the mountain it makes very great falls, admitting no navigation for ten miles to the Turkey foot. Thence to the great croſſing, about twenty miles, it is again navigable, except in dry ſeaſons, and at this place is two hundred yards wide. The ſources of this river are divided from thoſe of the Patomak by the Allegany mountains. From the falls, where it interſects the Laurel mountain, to Fort Cumberland, the head of the navigation on the Patomak, is forty miles of very mountainous road. Wills's creek, at the mouth of which was Fort Cumberland, is thirty or forty yards wide, but affords no navigation as yet. Cheat river, another conſiderable branch of the Monongahela, is two hundred yards wide at its mouth, and one hundred yards at the Dunkard's ſettlement, fifty miles higher. It is navigable for boats, except in dry ſeaſons. The boundary between Virginia and Pennſylvania croſſes it about three or four miles above its mouth.

The Allegany river, with a ſlight ſwell, affords navigavion for light batteaux to Venango, at the mouth of French creek, where it is two hundred yards wide; and it is practiſed even to Le Bœuf, from whence there is a portage of fifteen miles to Preſque Iſle on Lake Erie.

The country watered by the Miſſiſſippi and its eaſtern branches, conſtitutes five-eighths of the United States; two of which five-eighths are occupied by the Ohio and its waters: the reſiduary ſtreams which run into the Gulf of Mexico, the Atlantic, and the St. Lawrence water, the remaining three-eighths.

Before we quit the ſubject of the weſtern waters, we will take a view of their principal connections with the Atlantic. Theſe are three; the Hudſon's river, the Patowmak, and the Miſſiſſippi itſelf. Down the laſt will paſs all the heavy commodities. But the navigation through the Gulf of Mexico is ſo dangerous, and that up the Miſſiſſippi ſo difficult and tedious, that it is thought probable that European merchandize will not return throngh that channel. It is moſt likely that flour, timber, and other heavy articles will be floated on rafts, which will themſelves be an article for ſale as well as their loading, the navigators returning by land or in light batteaux. There will therefore be a competition between the Hudſon and the Patomak rivers for the reſidue of the commerce of all the country weſtward of Lake Erie, on the waters of the lakes, of the Ohio, and upper parts of Miſſiſſippi. To go to New-York, that part of the trade which comes from the lakes or their waters muſt firſt be brought into

into Lake Erie. Between Lake Superior and its waters and Huron are the rapids of St. Mary, which will permit boats to paſs, but not larger veſſels. Lakes Huron and Michigan afford communication with Lake Erie by veſſels of eight feet draught. That part of the trade which comes from the waters of the Miſſiſſippi muſt paſs from them through ſome portage into the waters of the lakes. The portage from the Illinois river into a water of Michigan is of one mile only. From the Wabaſh, Miami, Muſkingum, or Allegany, are portages into the waters of Lake Erie, of from one to fifteen miles. When the commodities are brought into, and have paſſed through Lake Erie, there is between that and Ontario an interruption by the falls of Niagara, where the portage is of eight miles; and between Ontario and the Hudſon's river are portages of the falls of Onondago, a little above Oſwego, of a quarter of a mile; from Wood creek to the Mohawks river two miles; at the little falls of the Mohawks river half a mile, and from Schenectady to Albany ſixteen miles. Beſides the increaſe of expence occaſioned by frequent change of carriage, there is an increaſed riſk of pillage produced by committing merchandize to a greater number of hands ſucceſſively. The Patomak offers itſelf under the following circumſtances. For the trade of the lakes and their waters weſtward of Lake Erie, when it ſhall have entered that lake, it muſt coaſt along its ſouthern ſhore, on account of the number and excellence of its harbours, the northern, though ſhorteſt, having few harbours, and theſe unſafe. Having reached Cayahoga, to proceed to New-York it will have eight hundred and twenty-five miles, and five portages: whereas it is but four hundred and twenty-five miles to Alexandria, its emporium on the Patomak, if it turns into the Cayahoga, and paſſes through that, Bigbeaver, Ohio, Yohoganey, (or Monongalia and Cheat and Patomak, and there are but two portages; the firſt of which between Cayahoga and Beaver may be removed by uniting the ſources of theſe waters, which are lakes in the neighbourhood of each other, and in a champaign country; the other from the waters of Ohio to Patomak will be from fifteen to forty miles, according to the trouble which ſhall be taken to approach the two navigations. For the trade of the Ohio, or that which ſhall come into it from its own waters or the Miſſiſſippi, it is nearer through the Patomak to Alexandria than to New-York by five hundred and eighty miles, and it is interrupted by one portage only. There is another circumſtance of difference too. The lakes themſelves never freeze, but the communications between them freeze, and the Hudſon's river is itſelf ſhut up by the ice three months in the year: whereas the channel to the Cheſapeek leads directly into a warmer climate. The ſouthern parts of it very rarely freeze at all, and whenever the northern do, it is ſo near the ſources of the rivers, that the frequent floods to which they are there liable break up the ice immediately, ſo that veſſels may paſs through the whole winter, ſubject only to accidental and ſhort delays. Add to all this, that in caſe of a war with our neighbours the Anglo-Americans or the Indians, the route to New-York becomes a frontier through almoſt its whole length, and all commerce through it ceaſes from that moment.—But the channel to New York is already known to practiſe; whereas the upper waters of the Ohio and the Patomak, and the great falls of the latter, are yet to be cleared of their fixed obſtructions.

Particular

Particular descriptions of the other rivers in the United States, are reserved to be given in the geographical account of the states, through which they respectively flow. One general observation respecting the rivers will, however, be naturally introduced here, and that is, that the entrances into almost all the rivers, inlets and bays, from New-Hampshire to Georgia, are from fourh-east to north-west.

Bays.] The coast of the United States is indented with numerous bays, some of which are equal in size to any in the known world. Beginning at the north-easterly part of the continent, and proceeding south-westerly, you first find the bay or gulf of St. Lawrence, which receives the waters of the river of the same name. Next is Chebukto Bay, in Nova-Scotia, distinguished by the loss of a French fleet in a former war between France and Great-Britain. The Bay of Fundy, between Nova-Scotia and New-England, is remarkable for its tides, which rise to the height of fifty or sixty feet, and flow so rapidly as to overtake animals which feed upon the shore. Penobscot, Broad and Casco Bays, lie along the coast of the province of Main. Massachusett's-Bay spreads eastward of Boston, and is comprehended between Cape Ann on the north, and Cape Cod on the south. The points of the harbour are Nahant and Alderton points. Passing by Narraganset and other bays in the state of Rhode-Island, you enter Long-Island Sound, between Montauk-point and the Main. This *Sound*, as it is called, is a kind of inland sea, from three to twenty-five miles broad, and about one hundred and forty miles long, extending the whole length of the island, and dividing it from Connecticut. It communicates with the ocean at both ends of Long-Island, and affords a very safe and convenient inland navigation.

The celebrated strait, called *Hell-Gate*, is near the west end of this sound, about eight miles eastward of New-York city, and is remarkable for its whirlpools, which make a tremendous roaring at certain times of tide. These whirlpools are occasioned by the narrowness and crookedness of the pass, and a bed of rocks which extend quite across it; and not by the meeting of the tides from east to west, as has been conjectured, because they meet at Frogs-point, several miles above. A skilful pilot may with safety conduct a ship of any burden through this strait with the tide, or at still water with a fair wind.

Delaware Bay is sixty miles long, from the Cape to the entrance of the river Delaware at Bombay-hook; and so wide in some parts, as that a ship, in the middle of it, cannot be seen from the land. It opens into the Atlantic north-west and south-east, between Cape Henlopen on the right, and Cape May on the left. These Capes are eighteen miles apart.

The Chesapeek is one of the largest bays in the known world. Its entrance is between Cape Charles and Cape Henry in Virginia, twelve miles wide, and it extends two hundred and seventy miles to the northward, dividing Virginia and Maryland. It is from seven to eighteen miles broad, and generally as much as nine fathoms deep; affording many commodious harbours, and a safe and easy navigation. It receives the waters of the Susquehannah, Patomak, Rappahannok, York and James rivers, which are all large and navigable.

Face

Face of the Country.] The tract of country belonging to the United States, is happily variegated with plains and mountains, hills and vallies. Some parts are rocky, particularly New-England, the north parts of New-York, and New-Jerſey, and a broad ſpace, including the ſeveral ridges of the long range of mountains which run ſouth-weſtward through Pennſylvania, Virginia, North-Carolina, and part of Georgia, dividing the waters which flow into the Atlantic, from thoſe which fall into the Miſſiſſippi. In the parts eaſt of the Allegany mountains, in the ſouthern ſtates, the country for ſeveral hundred miles in length, and ſixty or ſeventy, and ſometimes more, in breadth, is level, and entirely free of ſtone. It has been a queſtion agitated by the curious, whether the extenſive tract of low, flat country, which fronts the ſeveral ſtates ſouth of New-York, and extends back to the hills, has remained in its preſent form and ſituation ever ſince the flood: or whether it has been made by the particles of earth which have been waſhed down from the adjacent mountains, and by the accumulation of ſoil from the decay of vegetable ſubſtances; or by earth waſhed out of the bay of Mexico by the gulf ſtream, and lodged on the coaſt; or by the receſs of the ocean, occaſioned by a change in ſome other part of the earth. Several phænomena deſerve conſideration in forming an opinion on this queſtion.

1. It is a fact, well known to every perſon of obſervation who has lived in, or travelled through the ſouthern ſtates, that marine ſhells and other ſubſtances which are peculiar to the ſea-ſhore, are almoſt invariably found by digging eighteen or twenty feet below the ſurface of the earth. A gentleman of veracity told me, that in ſinking a well many miles from the ſea, he found, at the depth of twenty feet, every appearance of a ſalt marſh, that is, marſh graſs, marſh mud, and brackiſh water. In all this flat country until you come to the hilly land, wherever you dig a well, you find the water, at a certain depth, freſh and tolerably good; but if you exceed that depth two or three feet, you come to a ſaltiſh or brackiſh water that is ſcarcely drinkable, and the earth dug up, reſembles, in appearance and ſmell, that which is dug up on the edges of the ſalt marſhes.

2. On and near the margin of the rivers are frequently found ſand hills, which appear to have been drifted into ridges by the force of water. At the bottom of ſome of the banks in the rivers, fifteen or twenty feet below the ſurface of the earth, are waſhed out from the ſolid ground, logs, branches, and leaves of trees; and the whole bank, from bottom to top, appears ſtreaked with layers of logs, leaves and ſand. Theſe appearances are ſeen far up the rivers, from eighty to one hundred miles from the ſea, where, when the rivers are low, the banks are from fifteen to twenty feet high. As you proceed down the rivers toward the ſea, the banks decreaſe in height, but ſtill are formed layers of ſand, leaves and logs, ſome of which are entirely ſound, and appear to have been ſuddenly covered to a conſiderable depth.

3. It has been obſerved, that the rivers in the ſouthern States frequently vary their channels; that the ſwamps and low grounds are conſtantly filling up; and that the land in many places annually infringes upon the ocean. It is an authenticated fact, that no longer ago than 1771, at Cape Lookout on the coaſt of North-Carolina, in about latitude 34° 50′, there was an excellent harbour, capacious enough to receive an hundred

hundred ſail of ſhipping at a time, in a good depth of water. It is now entirely filled up, and is ſolid ground. Inſtances of this kind are frequent along the coaſt.

It is obſervable, likewiſe, that there is a gradual deſcent of about eight hundred feet, by meaſurement, from the foot of the mountains to the ſea board. This deſcent continues, as is demonſtrated by ſoundings, far into the ſea.

IV. It is worthy of obſervation, that the ſoil on the banks of the rivers is proportionably coarſe or fine according to its diſtance from the mountains. When you firſt leave the mountains, and for a conſiderable diſtance, it is obſervable that the ſoil is coarſe, with a large mixture of ſand and ſhining heavy particles. As you proceed towards the ſea, the ſoil is leſs coarſe, and ſo on in proportion as you advance the ſoil is finer and finer, until, finally, is depoſited a ſoil ſo fine, that it conſolidates into perfect clay; but a clay of a particular quality, for a great part of it has intermixed with it reddiſh ſtreaks and veins like a ſpecies of *ochre*, brought probably from the *red lands* which lie up towards the mountains. This clay, when dug up and expoſed to the weather, will diſſolve into a fine mould without the leaſt mixture of ſand or any gritty ſubſtance whatever. Now we know that running waters, when turbid, will depoſit, firſt, the coarſeſt and heavieſt particles, mediately, thoſe of the ſeveral intermediate degrees of fineneſs, and ultimately, thoſe which are the moſt light and ſubtle; and ſuch in fact is the general quality of the ſoil on the banks of the ſouthern rivers.

V. It is a well known fact, that on the banks of Savannah river, about ninety miles from the ſea in a direct line, and one hundred and fifty or two hundred as the river runs, there is a very remarkable collection of oyſter ſhells of an uncommon ſize. They run in a north-eaſt and ſouth-weſt direction, nearly parallel with the ſea-coaſt, in three diſtinct ridges, which together occupy a ſpace of ſeven miles in breadth. The ridges commence at Savannah river, and have been traced as far as ſouth as the northern branches of the Altamaha river. They are found in ſuch quantities, as that the indigo planters carry them away in large boat loads, for the purpoſe of making lime water, to be uſed in the manufacture of indigo. There are thouſands and thouſands of tons ſtill remaining. The queſtion is, how came they here? It cannot be ſuppoſed that they were carried by land. Neither is it probable that they were conveyed in canoes, or boats, to ſuch a diſtance from the place where oyſters are now found. The uncivilized natives, agreeably to their roving manner of living, would rather have removed to the ſea ſhore, than have been at ſuch immenſe labour in procuring oyſters. Beſides, the difficulties of conveying them would have been inſurmountable. They would not only have had a ſtrong current in the river overcome by the Indians, who have ever had a great averſion to labour, but could they have ſurmounted this difficulty, oyſters, conveyed ſuch a diſtance either by land or water in ſo warm a climate, would have ſpoiled on the paſſage, and have become uſeleſs. The circumſtance of theſe ſhells being found in ſuch quantities, at ſo great a diſtance from the ſea, can be rationally accounted for in no other way, than by ſuppoſing that the ſea ſhore was formerly near this bed of ſhells, and

that the ocean has ſince, by the operation of certain cauſes not yet fully inveſtigated, receded. Theſe phænomena, it is preſumed, will authorize this concluſion, That a great part of the flat country which ſpreads eaſterly of the Allegany mountains, had, in ſome paſt period, a ſuperincumbent ſea; or rather that the conſtant accretion of ſoil from the various cauſes before hinted at, has forced it to retire.

Mountains.] The tract of country eaſt of Hudſon's river, comprehending part of the State of New-York, the four New-England States, and Vermont, is rough, hilly, and in ſome parts mountainous; but the mountains are comparatively ſmall, in few inſtances more than five or ſix hundred yards in height, and generally leſs. Theſe mountains will be more particularly deſcribed under New-England. In all parts of the world, and particularly on this weſtern continent, it is obſervable, that as you depart from the ocean, or from a river, the land gradually riſes; and the height of land, in common, is about equally diſtant from the water on either ſide. The *Andes* in South-America form the height of land between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans.

That range of mountains, of which the Shining mountains are a part, begins at Mexico, and continuing northward on the eaſt of California, ſeparates the waters of thoſe numerous rivers that fall into the Gulf of Mexico or the Gulf of California. Thence continuing their courſe ſtill northward, between the ſources of the Miſſiſſippi and the rivers that run into the South-Sea, they appear to end in about 47 or 48 degrees of north latitude; where a number of rivers riſe, and empty themſelves either into the South Sea, into Hudſon's Bay, or into the waters that communicate between theſe two ſeas.

The Highlands between the Province of Main and the Province of Quebec, divide the rivers which fall into the St. Lawrence north, and into the Atlantic ſouth. The Green Mountains, in Vermont, divide the waters which flow eaſterly into Connecticut river, from thoſe which fall weſterly into Lake Champlain and Hudſon's River.

Between the Atlantic, the Miſſiſſippi, and the Lakes, runs a long range of mountains, made up of a great number of ridges. Theſe mountains extend north-eaſterly and ſouth-weſterly, nearly parallel with the ſea coaſt, about nine hundred miles in length, and from ſixty to one hundred and fifty, and two hundred miles in breadth. Mr. Evans obſerves, with reſpect to that part of theſe mountains which he travelled over, viz. in the back parts of Pennſylvania, that ſcarcely one acre in ten is capable of culture. This, however, is not the caſe in all parts of this range. Numerous tracts of fine arable and grazing land intervene between the ridges. The different ridges which compoſe this immenſe range of mountains, have different names in different States.

As you advance from the Atlantic, the firſt ridge in Pennſylvania, Virginia, and North-Carolina, is the Blue Ridge or South Mountain; which is from one hundred and thirty, to two hundred miles from the ſea. This is about four thouſand feet high, meaſuring from its baſe. Between this and the North Mountain, ſpreads a large fertile vale; next lies the Allegany ridge; next beyond this is the Long Ride, called the Laurel Mountains, in a ſpur of which, about latitude 36°, is a ſpring of water, fifty feet deep, very cold, and as blue as indigo. From theſe ſeveral ridges proceed innumerable

innumerable nameleſs branches or ſpurs. The Kittatinny mountains run through the northern parts of New-Jerſey and Pennſylvania. All theſe ridges, except the Allegany, are ſeparated by rivers, which appear to have forced their paſſages through ſolid rocks.

The principal ridge is the Allegany, which has been deſcriptively called the *back-bone* of the United States. The general name for theſe mountains, taken collectively, ſeems not yet to have been determined. Mr. Evans calls them the *Endleſs Mountains:* others have called them the Appalachian mountains, from a tribe of Indians, who live on a river which proceeds from this mountain, called the Appalachikola But the moſt common, and without doubt the moſt proper name, is the *Allegany Mountains*, ſo called from the principal ridge of the range. Theſe mountains are not confuſedly ſcattered and broken, riſing here and there into high peaks over-topping each other, but ſtretch along in uniform ridges, ſcarcely half a mile high. They ſpread as you proceed ſouth, and ſome of them terminate in high perpendicular bluffs. Others gradually ſubſide into a level country, giving riſe to the rivers which run ſoutherly into the Gulf of Mexico.

They afford many curious phænomena, from which naturaliſts have deduced many theories of the earth. Some of them have been whimſical enough: Mr. Evans ſuppoſes that the moſt obvious of the theories which have been formed of the earth is, that it was originally made out of the ruins of another. "Bones and ſhells, which eſcaped the fate of ſofter animal ſubſtances, we find mixed with the old materials, and elegantly preſerved in the looſe ſtones and rocky baſes of the higheſt of the hills." But with deference to Mr. Evan's opinion, theſe appearances have been much more rationally accounted for by ſuppoſing the reality of the flood, of which Moſes has given us an account. But Mr. Evans thinks this too great a miracle to obtain belief. But whether is it a greater miracle for the Creator to alter a globe of earth by a deluge when made, or to create one new from the ruins of another? The former certainly is not leſs credible than the latter. "Theſe mountains," ſays our author, "exiſted in their preſent elevated height before the deluge, but not ſo bare of ſoil as now." How Mr. Evans came to be ſo circumſtantially acquainted with theſe pretended facts, is difficult to determine, unleſs we ſuppoſe him to have been an Antediluvian, and to have ſurveyed them accurately before the convulſions of the deluge; and until we can be fully aſſured of this, we muſt be excuſed in not aſſenting to his opinion, and in adhering to the old philoſophy of Moſes and his advocates. We have every reaſon to believe that the primitive ſtate of the earth was totally metamorphoſed by the firſt convulſion of nature, at the time of the deluge; that *the fountains of the great deep were indeed broken up*, and that the various *ſtrata* of the earth were diſſevered, and thrown into every poſſible degree of confuſion and diſorder. Hence thoſe vaſt piles of mountains which lift their craggy cliffs to the clouds, were probably thrown together from the floating ruins of the earth: and this conjecture is remarkably confirmed by the vaſt number of foſſils and other marine *exuviæ*, which are found imbeded on the tops of mountains, in the interior parts of continents remote from the ſea, in all parts of the world hitherto explored. The various circumſtances attending theſe marine bodies, leave us to conclude, that they were actually generated,

lived, and died in the very beds wherein they are found; and therefore theſe beds muſt have originally been at the bottom of the ocean, though now in many inſtances elevated ſeveral miles above its ſurface. Hence it it appears that mountains and continents were not primary productions of nature, but of a very diſtant period of time from the creation of the world; a time long enough for the *ſtrata* to have acquired their greateſt degree of coheſion and hardneſs; and for the teſtaceous matter of marine ſhells to become changed to a ſtony ſubſtance; for in the fiſſures of the lime-ſtone and other ſtrata, fragments of the ſame ſhell have been frequently found adhering to each ſide of the cleft, in the very ſtate in which they were originally broken; ſo that if the ſeveral parts were brought together, they would apparently tally with each other exactly. A very conſiderable time therefore muſt have elapſed between the chaotic ſtate of the earth and the deluge, which agrees with the account of Moſes, who makes it a little upwards of ſixteen hundred years. Theſe obſervations are intended to ſhew, in one inſtance out of many others, the agreement between revelation and reaſon, between the account which Moſes gives us of the creation and deluge, and the preſent appearances of nature. Thoſe who wiſh to have this agreement more fully and ſatisfactorily ſtated, are referred to a very learned and ingenious "*Inquiry into the original ſtate and formation of the earth*," by John Whitehurſt, F. R. S. to whom I acknowledge myſelf indebted for ſome of the foregoing obſervations.

Soil and productions, vegetable and animal.] The ſoil of the United States, though ſo various that few general obſervations will apply, may be ſaid to be equal to that of any country in the known world. Among the great variety of its productions are the following:

Indian corn, which is a native grain of America, from whence all the other parts of the world have been ſupplied. It agrees with all climates from the equator to latitude 45°. It flouriſhes beſt however between the latitudes 30° and 40°. The bunched Guinea corn, is a ſmall grain cultivated by the Negroes in the ſouthern ſtates, and affords a fine food for poultry. The ſpiked Indian corn is of a ſimilar kind.

Rice, which was brought into Carolina firſt by Sir Nathaniel Johnſon, 1688; and afterwards by a ſhip from Madagaſcar, in 1696; till which time it was not much cultivated. It flouriſhes only in Georgia and the Carolinas. Several unſucceſsful attempts have been made to cultivate it in Virginia.

The Wild Rice is a grain which grows in the greateſt plenty in ſome of the interior parts of North America, and is the moſt valuable of all the ſpontaneous productions of the country. It is of a very ſweet and nutritious quality, and in future periods may be of great ſervice to infant colonies, in affording them a ſupport until, in the courſe of cultivation, other ſupplies may be obtained. This uſeful grain grows in the water where it is about two feet deep, and in a rich muddy ſoil. In its ſtalk, ears, and manner of growing, it very much reſembles oats. It is gathered by the Indians in the following manner: about the time that it begins to turn from its milky ſtate and to ripen, they run their canoes into the midſt of it, and tying bunches of it together juſt below the ears, they leave it in this ſituation for three or four weeks, till it is perfectly ripe. At the end of this time, commonly about the laſt of September, they return

return to the river, and placing their canoes close to the bunches of rice in such position as to receive the grain when it falls, they beat it out with pieces of wood formed for that purpose. Having done this they dry it with smoke, and then tread or rub off the outside husk, after which it is fit for use.

Wheat, rye, barley, and oats, are cultivated throughout the states, some few parts excepted. In Pennsylvania is a kind of grain called spelts, which grows much like wheat. The grain, however, is better covered, and is good food for horses. The flour made from it is very white, and is frequently mixed with wheat flour for bread. This grain might probably be successfully introduced into the New England states.

Potatoes are said to be aboriginal of America. They are of many kinds, and are raised in great quantities. The sweet, or Carolina potatoes, does not thrive well in northern climates, nor do the other kinds in the lower parts of the southern states.

The culinary roots and plants are beets, carrots, parsnips, turnips, radishes, peas, beans, cabbages, cauliflowers, endive, cellery, angelica, lettuce, asparagus, peppergrass, leeks, onions, watermelons, muskmelons, cantelopes, which are a species of the muskmelon, but much superior in richness and flavor, cucumbers, mandrakes, pumpkins, squashes, &c. Besides these are several other roots and plants of a medicinal kind, such as elecampane, spikenard, or petty-morrell, sarsaparilla, ginseng, liquorice, snake-root, gold-thread, solomon's-seal, devil's-bit, horse-radish, and blood root.

The gold-thread is of the vine kind, and grows in swamps. The roots spread themselves just under the surface of the morass, and are easily drawn out by handfuls. They resemble a large entangled skein of silk, and are of a bright yellow, It is exceedingly bitter in taste, and is an excellent remedy for a soreness in the mouth.

Devil's-bit, is a wild plant that has the print of teeth in its roots. The Indians have a tradition, that this root was once an universal remedy for all diseases; but some evil spirit, envying mankind the possession of so efficacious a medicine, gave the root a bite, which deprived it of a great part of its virtue: Hence its name.

Blood-root is a sort of plantain, that springs out of the ground in six or seven long rough leaves, the veins of which are red; the root of it is like a small carrot; when broken, the inside is of a deeper colour than the outside, and distils several drops of juice that looks like blood. This juice is a strong, but dangerous emetic.

Of the various aromatic and other kinds of herbs are balm, savory, thyme, sage, balsam, sweet-marjoram, hyssop, tansey, mint, penny-royal, fennel, yarrow, may-weed, gargit, skunk-cabbage, or poke, wake-robin, bittany, scabious, mullen, wild pease, mouse-ear, wild indigo, cat-mint, or as it is sometimes called, catnip, nettles, cinque-foil, eyebright, sanikle, plantain of several kinds, maiden-hair, burdock, field-dock, rock-liver-wort, no le-liverwort, blood-wort, mother-wort, wild beans, ground-ivy, water-cresses, &c. &c.

Mr. Catesby observes, that the aromatic herbs in the southern states, are more highly flavoured, and more volatile than in Europe.

Apples

Apples are the moſt common fruit in the United States. They grow in the greateſt plenty and variety in the northern and middle ſtates, and in the interior, but not in the maritime parts of the ſouthern. In the low country of Georgia, the Carolinas, and ſome other ſtates, grows a ſort of wild crap-apple. The bloſſoms are fragrant, the fruit is ſmall and ſour, and makes an excellent preſerve, or ſweet-meat.

Beſides apples, are pears, peaches, quinces, apricots, nectarines, plums, cherries of many kinds, currants, gooſeberries, raſberries, blackberries, billberries, whortleberries, ſtrawberries, mulberries, cranberries, &c. Of the nuts, are cheſnuts, black walnuts, hiccory nuts, butternuts, beechnuts, hazlenuts, filberts, and Illinois nuts, or pecannuts. Theſe fruit grow in great abundance and perfection in almoſt every part of North America.

The Illinois, or pecannut, is of the walnut kind, about the ſize of an acorn, and of an oval form; the ſhell is eaſily cracked, and the kernel ſhaped like that of a walnut. The trees which bear this fruit grow principally on the Illinois river. The butter or oil nut is much longer and larger than the walnut. Its ſhell is furrowed, and contains a large quantity of kernel, which is very oily, and of a rich and agreeable flavour. An oil, equal to that of olives, might be extracted from this nut. The inſide bark of this tree is much uſed in dyes. A decoction of its bark or buds is a ſafe and powerful cathartic; and is frequently uſed in the country inſtead of a more coſtly medicine. Filberts are of the hazlenut kind, but larger and more richly flavoured.

Figs, oranges, lemons, and pomegranates, are not natural to any ſtate north of the Carolinas. The pomegranate requires ſalt water. Grapes of ſeveral ſorts grow ſpontaneouſly from latitude 25° to 45° north The various kinds of trees, ſhrubs, and flowers, ſo many of them as are worthy of notice, will be mentioned in the deſcription of the ſeveral ſtates.

The late Count de Buffon has advanced the opinion, that the animals in America are inferior, in almoſt every reſpect, to thoſe on the eaſtern continent. Mr. Jefferſon, in a very learned and elaborate manner, has confuted this opinion, and proved that the animals of America are, in moſt inſtances, equal, and in many reſpects ſuperior, to thoſe of the old world; and has ſhewn that out of two hundred ſpecies of animals, which M. de Buffon ſuppoſes is the whole number exiſting on the earth, one hundred ſpecies are aboriginal of America.

The following catalogue of animals is collected principally from Cateſby, Jefferſon, and Carver.

Beaſts common to North America.

Mammoth	Mooſe Deer	Grey Fox Squirrel
Buffalo	Stag	Black Squirrel
Panther	Carrabou	Red Squirrel
Carcajou	Fallow Deer	Ground Squirrel
Wild cat	Greenland Deer	Flying Squirrel
Bear	Rabbit	Black Fox
Elk	Bahama Coney	Red Fox
White Bear	Monax	Grey Fox
Wolf	Grey Squirrel	Racoon
		Woodchuck

Woodchuck	Beaver	Field Mouſe
Skunk	Muſquaſh	Moles
Opoſſum	Otter	Quickhatch
Pole Cat	Fiſher	Morſe
Weaſel	Water Rat	Porcupine
Marten	Muſkrat	Seal.
Minx	Houſe Mouſe	

Theſe are divided into three claſſes;

1. Beaſts of different *genus* from any known in the old world; of which are the Opoſſum, the Racoon, the Quickhatch, &c.

2. Beaſts of the ſame genus, but of different ſpecies from the eaſtern continent, of which are

The Panther	Fallow Deer	Ground Squirrel
Wild Cat	Grey Fox	Flying Squirrel
Buffalo	Grey Squirrel	Pole Cat
Mooſe Deer	Grey Fox Squirrel	Porcupine, &c.
Stag	Black Squirrel	

3. Beaſts which are the ſame on both continents, viz.

The Bear	Otter	Field Mouſe
White Bear	Water Rat	Mole
Wolf	Houſe Rat	Morſe
Weaſel	Muſk Rat	Seal, &c.
Beaver	Houſe Mouſe	

The MAMMOTH is not found in the civilized parts of America. It is conjectured, however, that he was carniverous, and that he ſtill exiſts on the north of the Lakes. Their tuſks, grinders, and ſkeletons of uncommon magnitude, have been found at the ſalt licks, on the Ohio, in New-Jerſey, and other places. The Indians have a tradition handed down from their fathers reſpecting theſe animals. 'That in ancient times a herd of them came to the Big-bone licks, and began an univerſal deſtruction of the bears, deer, elks, buffaloes, and other animals which had been created for the uſe of the Indians: that the Great Man above, looking down and ſeeing this, was ſo enraged that he ſeized his lightning, deſcended to the earth, ſeated himſelf upon a neighbouring mountain, on a rock, on which his ſeat and the print of his feet are ſtill to be ſeen, and hurled his bolts among them till the whole were ſlaughtered, except the big bull, who preſenting his forehead to the ſhafts, ſhook them off as they fell; but at length miſſing one, it wounded him in the ſide; whereon, ſpringing round, he bounded over the Ohio, the Wabaſh, the Illinois, and finally over the great lakes where he is living at this day.'

European naturaliſts have ſuppoſed from the bones of this remarkable animal, that it is the ſame with the Elephant; others, that it anſwers to the hippopotamus or river horſe; the tuſk and ſkeletons have been aſcribed to the former, while the grinders have been given to the latter. But Mr. Jefferſon obſerves, that the ſkeleton of the Mammoth (for ſo the incognitum has been called) beſpeaks an animal of five or ſix times the cubic volume of the elephant, as Monſieur de Buffon has admitted; and that the grinders are five times as large as thoſe of the elephant, and quite of a different

ferent ſhape, and adds that the elephant is a native only of the torrid zone and its vicinities, and that no bones of the mammoth has ever been found further ſouth than the ſalines of Holſton river, a branch of the Taniſſee, about the latitude 36° 30 north, and as far north as the arctic circle. The mammoth, then, cannot be the ſame animal as the elephant.

The OPOSSUM is an animal of a diſtinct genus, and therefore has little reſemblance to any other creature. It is about the ſize of a common cat, which it reſembles in ſome degree as to its body; its legs are ſhort, the feet are formed like thoſe of a rat, as are its ears; the ſnout and head are long like the hog's; the teeth like thoſe of a dog; its body is covered thinly with long briſtly whitiſh hair; its tail is long, ſhaped like that of a rat without hair. But what is moſt remarkable in this creature, and which diſtinguiſhes it from all others, is its falſe belly, which is formed by a ſkin or membrane, (incloſing the dugs) which it opens and cloſes at will. In this falſe belly the young are concealed in time of danger. Though contrary to the laws of nature, it is believed by many, that theſe animals are bred at the teats of their dams. It is a fact, that the young ones have been many times ſeen, not larger than the head of a large pin, faſt fixed and hanging to the teats in the falſe belly. In this ſtate their members are diſtinctly viſible; they appear like an embryo clinging to the teats. By conſtant obſervation they have been found to grow into a perfect fœtus; and in proper time they drop off into the falſe belly where they remain ſecure till they are capable of providing for themſelves. From theſe circumſtances it ſeems that the opoſſum is produced in a manner, out of the common courſe of nature. But it appears from the diſſection of one of them by Dr. Tyſon, that their ſtructure is ſuch as is fitted for generation, like that of other animals; and of courſe he ſuppoſes that they muſt neceſſarily be bred and excluded in the ſame way as other quadrupeds. But by what method the dam, after excluſion, fixes them on her teats, if this be the manner of production, is a ſecret yet unknown.

The BUFFALO is larger than an ox; high on the ſhoulders; and deep through the breaſt. The fleſh of this animal is equal in goodneſs to beef; its ſkin makes good leather, and its hair, which is of a woolly kind, is manufactured into a tolerably good cloth.

The TYGER of America reſembles, in ſhape, thoſe of Aſia and Africa, but is conſiderably ſmaller; nor does it appear to be ſo fierce and ravenous as they are. The colour of it is a darkiſh yellow, and is entirely free from ſpots.

The CAT of the MOUNTAIN reſembles a common cat, but is of a much larger ſize. Its hair is of a reddiſh or orange colour, interſperſed with ſpots of black. This animal is exceedingly fierce, though it will ſeldom attack a man.

The ELK is ſhaped like a deer, but is conſiderably larger, being equal in bulk to a horſe. The horns of this creature grow to a prodigious ſize, extending ſo wide, that two or three perſons might ſit between them at the ſame time. But what is ſtill more remarkable is, that theſe horns are ſhed every year, in the month of February, and by Auguſt, the new ones are nearly at their full growth.

The

The MOOSE is about the ſize of the elk, and its horns almoſt as large. Like the elk, it ſheds its horns annually. Though this creature is of the deer kind, it never herds as do deer in general. Its fleſh is exceedingly good food, eaſy of digeſtion, and very nouriſhing. Its ſkin, as well as that of the elk, valuable, making, when dreſſed, good leather.

The CARRABOU is ſomething like the mooſe in ſhape, though not nearly ſo tall. Its fleſh is exceedingly good; its tongue in particular is in high eſteem. Its ſkin, being ſmooth and free from veins, is valuable.

The CARCAJOU is creature of the cat kind, and is a terrible enemy to the elk, and to the carabou, as well as to the deer. He either comes upon them unperceived from ſome concealment, or climbs up in a tree and taking his ſtation on ſome of the branches, waits till one of them takes ſhelter under it; when he faſtens upon his neck, and opening the jugular vein, ſoon brings his prey to the ground. The only way of eſcape is flying immediately to the water, for as the carcajou has a great diſlike to that element, he will have his prey rather than enter it.

The SKUNK is the moſt extraordinary animal the American woods produce. It is of the ſame ſpecies with the pole-cat, for which, though different from it in many reſpects, and particularly in being of a leſs ſize, it is frequently miſtaken. Its hair is long and ſhining, of a dirty white, mixed in ſome places with black. Its tail is long and buſhy like that of the fox. It lives chiefly in woods and hedges, and is poſſeſſed of extraordinary powers, which however are exerted only when it is purſued. On ſuch an occaſion, it ejects from behind a ſmall ſtream of water, of ſo ſubtle a nature, and ſo powerful a ſmell, that the air is tainted with it to a ſurprizing diſtance. On this account the animal is called by the French *Enfant du Diable*, the Child of the Devil, or *Bête Puante*, the Stinking Beaſt. The water which this creature emits in its defence, is generally ſuppoſed by naturaliſts to be its urine; but Mr. Carver, who ſhot and diſſected many of them, declares that he found, near the urinal veſſels, a ſmall receptacle of water, totally diſtinct from the bladder, from which he was ſatisfied the horrid ſtench proceeded. The fat of the ſkunk, when externally applied, is a powerful emollient, and its fleſh, when dreſſed without being tainted by its fetid water, is ſweet and good.

The PORCUPINE or HEDGE-HOG is about the ſize of a ſmall dog, though it is neither ſo long nor ſo tall. Its ſhape reſembles that of a fox, excepting its head, which is ſomething like the head of a rabit. Its body is covered with quills of about four inches in length, moſt of which are, excepting at the point, of the thickneſs of a ſtraw. Theſe quills the porcupine darts at his enemy, and if they pierce the fleſh in the leaſt degree, they will ſink quite through it, and are not to be extracted without inciſion. The Indians uſe theſe quills for boring their ears and noſes to inſert their jewels, and alſo by way of ornament to their ſtockings, hair, &c.

The WOOD CHUCK is a ground animal of the fur kind, about fifteen inches long; its body is round, and its legs ſhort; its fore paws are broad, and conſtructed for the purpoſe of digging holes in the ground, in which it burrows; its fleſh is tolerable food.

The

The RACOON is an animal of a genus different from any known on the eaſtern continent. Its head is much like a fox's, only its ears are ſhorter, more round, and more naked. It alſo reſembles that animal in its hair, which is thick, long, and ſoft; and in its body and legs, excepting that of the former is larger, and the latter both larger and ſhorter. Acroſs its face runs a broad ſtripe including its eyes, which are large. Its ſnout is black, and roundiſh at the end, like that of a dog; its teeth alſo are ſimilar to thoſe of the dog, both in number and ſhape; the tail is long and round, with annular ſtripes on it; the feet have five long ſlender toes, armed with ſharp claws, by which it is enabled to climb trees, and run to the extremities of the boughs. Its fore feet ſerve it inſtead of hands, like thoſe of the monkey.

The laſt quadruped which ſhall be particularly deſcribed, is the BEAVER. This is an amphibious animal, which cannot live for any long time in the water, and it is ſaid can exiſt without it provided it has the convenience of ſometimes bathing itſelf. The largeſt beavers are nearly four feet in length, about fourteen or fifteen inches in breadth over the haunches, and weigh fifty or ſixty pounds. The head of this animal is large; its ſnout long; its eyes ſmall; its ears ſhort, round, hairy on the outſide, and ſmooth within; of its teeth, which are long, broad, ſtrong, and ſharp, the under ones ſtand out of its mouth about the breadth of three fingers, and the upper about half a finger. Beſides theſe teeth, which are called *inciſors*, beavers have ſixteen grinders, eight on each ſide, four above and four below, directly oppoſite to each other. With the former they are able to cut down trees of a conſiderable ſize, with the latter to break the hardeſt ſubſtances. Their legs are ſhort, particularly the fore legs, which are only four or five inches long. The toes of the fore feet are ſeparate; thoſe of the hind feet have membranes between them. In conſequence of this they can walk, though but ſlowly, while they ſwim as eaſily as any equatic animals. Their tails ſomewhat reſemble thoſe of fiſh, and theſe, and their hind feet, are the only parts in which they do not reſemble land animals. Their colour is different according to the different climates which they inhabit. In the moſt northern parts, they are generally quite black; in more temperate, brown; their colour becoming lighter and lighter as they approach towards the ſouth. Their fur is of two ſorts all over their bodies. That which is longeſt is generally about an inch long, though on the back it ſometimes extends to two inches, gradually ſhortening towards the head and tail. This part is coarſe and of little uſe. The other part of it conſiſts of a very thick and fine down, of about three quarters of an inch long, ſo ſoft that it feels like ſilk, and is that which is commonly manufactured. Caſtor, ſo uſeful in medicine, is produced from the body of the beaver. It was formerly believed to be his teſticles, but late diſcoveries have ſhewn that it is contained in four bags in the lower belly.

The ingenuity of the beavers in building their cabins, and in providing themſelves ſubſiſtence, is truly wonderful. When they are about to chooſe a habitation, they aſſemble in companies, ſometimes of two or three hundred, and after mature deliberation, fix on a place where plenty of proviſions, and all neceſſaries are to be found. Their houſes are always ſituated in the water, and when they can find neither lake nor pond

pond convenient, they ſupply the defect by ſtopping the current of ſome brook or ſmall river. For this purpoſe they ſelect a number of trees, carefully taking thoſe above the place where they intend to build, that they may ſwim down with the current, and placing themſeves by threes or fours round each tree, ſoon fell them. By a continuation of the ſame labour, they cut the trees into proper lengths, and rolling them into the water, navigate them to the place where they are to be uſed. After this they conſtruct a dam with as much ſolidity and regularity as the moſt experienced workman could do. The formation of their cabins is no leſs remarkable. Theſe cabins are built either on piles in the middle of the pond they have formed, on the bank of a river, or at the extremity of ſome point of land projecting into a lake. The figure of them is round or oval. Two-thirds of each of them riſes above the water, and this part is large enough to contain eight or ten inhabitants. They are contiguous to each other, ſo as to allow an eaſy communication. Each beaver has his place aſſigned him, the floor of which he curiouſly ſtrews with leaves, rendering it clean and comfortable. The winter never ſurprizes theſe animals before their buſineſs is completed; for their houſes are generally finiſhed by the laſt of September, and their ſtock of proviſions laid in, which conſiſts of ſmall pieces of wood diſpoſed in ſuch manner as to preſerve its moiſture.

Upwards of one hundred and thirty American BIRDS have been enumerated, and many of them deſcribed by Cateſby, Jefferſon and Carver. The following catalogue is inſerted to gratify the curious, to inform the inquiſitive, and to ſhew the aſtoniſhing variety in this beautiful part of creation.

The Blackbird
Razor-billed ditto
Baltimore Bird
Baſtard Baltimore
Blue Bird
Buzzard
Blue Jay
Blue Groſbeak
Brown Bittern
Creſted Bittern
Small Bittern
Booby
Great Booby
Blue Peter
Bullfinch
Bald Coot
Cut Water
White Curlew
Cat Bird
Cuckow
Crow
Cowpen Bird
Chattering Plover or Kildee
Crane or Blue Heron
Yellow-breaſted Chat
Cormorant
Hooping Crane
Pine Creeper
Yellow-throated Creeper
Dove
Ground Dove
Duck
Ilathera Duck
Round creſted ditto
Sheldrach or Canvaſs do.
Buffels head ditto
Spoon bill ditto
Summer ditto
Blackhead ditto
Blue winged Shoveller
Little Brown Duck
Sprigtail
Whitefaced Teal
Blue winged Teal
Pied bill Dobchick
Eagle
Bald Eagle
Flamingo
Fieldfare of Carolina, or Robin
Purple Finch
Bahama Finch
American Goldfinch
Painted Finch
Creſted Fly-catcher
Black-cap ditto
Little brown ditto
Red-eyed ditto
Finch Creeper
Storm Finch
Goat Sucker of Carolina
Gull
Laughing Gull
Gooſe
Canada Gooſe
Hawk
Fiſhing Hawk
Pigeon Hawk
Night Hawk
Swallow-tail'd ditto

The

The Hangbird
Heron
Little white Heron
Heath-cock
Humming-bird
Purple Jackdaw, or Crow Blackbird
King Bird
King-fiſher
Loon
Lark
Large Lark
Blue Linnet
Mock-bird
Mow-bird
Purple Martin
Nightingale
Noddy
Nuthatch
Oyſter-catcher
Owl
Screetch Owl
American Partridge, or Quail,
Pheaſant, or Mountain Partridge
Water Pheaſant
Pelican
Water Pelican
Pigeon of Paſſage
White crowned Pigeon
Parrot of Paradiſe
Paroquet of Carolina
Raven
Rice-bird
Red-bird
Summer Red-bird
Swan
Soree
Snipe
Red Start
Red winged Starling
Swallow
Chimney do.
Snow-bird
Little Sparrow
Bahama do.
Stork
Turkey
Wild Turkey
Tyrant
Creſted Titmouſe
Yellow Titmouſe
Bahama do.
Hooded do.
Yellow Rump
Towhe Bird
Red Thruſh
Fox coloured Thruſh
Little Thruſh
Tropic Bird
Turtle of Carolina
Water-wagtail
Water-hen
Water-witch
Wakon Bird
Whetſaw
Large white bellied Woodpecker
Large red creſted do.
Gold-winged do.
Red-bellied do.
Hairy do.
Red-headed do.
Yellow-bellied do.
Smalleſt-ſpotted do.
Wren

Cateſby obſerves, that the birds of America generally exceed thoſe of Europe in the beauty of their plumage, but are much inferior to them in the melody of their notes.

The WATER PELICAN inhabits the Miſſiſſippi. Its pouch holds a peck.

The LARK is a lofty bird, and ſoars as high as any of the inhabitants of the airy regions. Hence the old proverb, 'When the ſky falls we ſhall catch larks.'

The WHIP-POOR-WILL is remarkable for the plaintive melody of its notes. It acquires its name from the noiſe it makes, which to the people of the States founds Whip-poor-will, to the Indians Muck-a-wiſs. A ſtriking proof how differently the ſame ſounds impreſs different perſons!

The LOON is a water fowl, of the ſame ſpecies of the Dobchick. It is an exceedingly nimble bird, and ſo expert at diving, that it is with great difficulty killed.

The PARTRIDGE. In ſome parts of the country there are three or four different kinds of Partridges, all of them larger than the Partridges of Europe. What is called the Quail in New-England, is denominated Partridge in the ſouthern ſtates, where the true Partridge is not to be found.

The WAKON-BIRD, which probably is of the ſame ſpecies with the Bird of Paradiſe, receives its name from the ideas the Indians have of its ſuperior excellence; the Wakon-bird being in their language the bird of the Great Spirit. It is nearly the ſize of the ſwallow, of a brown colour, ſhaded about the neck with a bright green. The wings are of a darker brown

brown than the body. Its tail is compoſed of four or five feathers, which are three times as long as its body, and which are beautifully ſhaded with green and purple. It carries this fine length of plumage in the ſame manner as the peacock does his, but it is not known whether like him it ever raiſes it to an erect poſition.

The WHETSAW is of the cuckow kind, being, like that, a ſolitary bird, and ſcarcely ever ſeen. In the ſummer months it is heard in the groves, where it makes a noiſe like the filing of a ſaw, from which circumſtance it has received its name.

The HUMMING-BIRD is the ſmalleſt of all the feathered inhabitants of the air. Its plumage ſurpaſſes deſcription. On its head is a ſmall tuft of jetty black; its breaſt is red; its belly white; its back, wings and tail of the fineſt pale green: ſmall ſpecks of gold are ſcattered over it with inexpreſſible grace: and to crown the whole, an almoſt imperceptible down ſoftens the ſeveral colours, and produces the moſt pleaſing ſhades.

Of the Snakes which infeſt the United States, are the following, viz.

The Rattle Snake	Corn do.
Small Rattle Snake	Hognoſe do.
Yellow Rattle Snake	Houſe do.
Water Viper	Green do.
Black Viper	Wampum do.
Brown Viper	Glaſs do.
Copper-bellied Snake	Bead do.
Blueiſh-green Snake	Wallor-Houſe Adder
Black Snake	Striped or Gartner Snake
Ribbon do.	Water Snake
Spotted Ribbon do.	Hiſſing do.
Chain do.	Thorn-tail'd do.
Joint do.	Speckled do.
Green-ſpotted do.	Ring do.
Coachwhip do.	Two-headed do.

The THORN-TAIL SNAKE is of a middle ſize, and of a very venomous nature. It receives its name from a thorn, like a dart, in its tail, with which it inflicts its wounds.

The JOINT SNAKE is a great curioſity. Its ſkin is as hard as parchment, and as ſmooth as glaſs. It is beautifully ſtreaked with black and white. It is ſo ſtiff, and has ſo few joints, and thoſe ſo unyielding, that it can hardly bend itſelf into the form of a hoop. When it is ſtruck, it breaks like a pipe ſtem; and you may, with a whip, break it from the tail to the bowels into pieces not an inch long, and not produce the leaſt tincture of blood. It is not venomous.

The TWO-HEADED SNAKE. Whether this be a diſtinct ſpecies of ſnakes intended to propagate its kind, or whether it be a monſtrous production, is uncertain. The only ones I have known or heard of in this country, are, one taken near Champlain in 1762, and one preſerved in the Muſeum of Yale College, in New-Haven.

The ſnakes are not ſo numerous nor ſo venomous in the northern as in the ſouthern ſtates. In the latter, however, the inhabitants are furniſhed with

with a much greater variety of plants and herbs, which afford immediate relief to perſons bitten by theſe venomous creatures. It is an obſervation worthy of perpetual and grateful remembrance, that wherever venomous animals are found, the GOD of nature has kindly provided ſufficient antidotes againſt their poiſon.

Of the aſtoniſhing variety of INSECTS found in America, we will mention

The Glow Worm	Sheep Tick	Butterfly
Earth Worm	Louſe	Moth
Leg or Guinea do.	Wood Louſe	Ant
Naked Snail	Forty Legs, or Centipes	Bee
Shell Snail	Caterpillar	Humble Bee
Tobacco Worm	Adder Bolt	Black Waſp
Wood Worm	Cicada, or Locuſt	Yellow Waſp
Silk Worm	Man-gazer	Hornet
Wall Louſe, or Bug	Cock Roche	Fly
Sow Bug	Cricket	Sand Fly
Horn Bug	Beetle	Muſketo
Flea	Fire-Fly, or Bug	Spider
Gnat		

To theſe may be added the inſect, which of late years has proved ſo deſtructive to the wheat in many parts of the middle and New-England States, commonly, but erroneouſly, called the Heſſian Fly.

The ALLIGATOR is a ſpecies of the crocodile, and in appearance one of the ugliеſt creatures in the world. They are amphibious, and live in and about creeks, ſwamps, and ponds of ſtagnant water. They are very fond of the fleſh of dogs and hogs, which they voraciouſly devour when they have opportunity. They are alſo very fond of fiſh, and devour vaſt quantities of them. When tired with fiſhing, they leave the water to baſk themſelves in the ſun, and then appear more like logs of half rotten wood thrown aſhore by the current, than living creatures; but upon perceiving any veſſel or perſon near them, they immediately throw themſelves into the water. Some are of ſo monſtrous a ſize as to exceed five yards in length. During the time they lie baſking on the ſhore, they keep their huge mouths wide open till filled with muſketoes, flies, and other inſects, when they ſuddenly ſhut their jaws and ſwallow their prey.

The alligator is an oviparous creature. The female makes a large hole in the ſand near the brink of a river, and there depoſits her eggs, which are as white as thoſe of a hen, but much larger and more ſolid. She generally lays about an hundred, continuing in the ſame place till they are all depoſited, which is a day or two. She then covers them with the ſand, and the better to conceal them, rolls herſelf not only over her precious *depoſitum*, but to a conſiderable diſtance. After this precaution, ſhe returns to the water, and tarries until natural inſtinct informs her that it is time to deliver her young from their confinement; ſhe then goes to the ſpot, attended by the male, and tearing up the ſand, begins to break the eggs; but ſo carefully that ſcarce a ſingle one is injured, and a whole ſwarm of little alligators is ſeen crawling about. The female then takes them on her

her neck and back, in order to remove them into the water; but the watchful birds of prey make use of this opportunity to deprive her of some, and even the male alligator, who indeed comes for no other end, devours what he can, till the female has reached the water with a few remaining; for all those which either fall from her back, or do not swim, she herself eats; so that of such a formidable brood, happily not more than four or five escape.

These alligators are the great destroyers of the fish in the rivers and creeks, it being their most safe and general food: nor are they wanting in address to satisfy their desires. Eight or ten, as it were by compact, draw up at the mouth of a river or creek, where they lie with their mouths open, whilst others go a considerable distance up the river, and chase the fish downward, by which means none of any bigness escape them. The alligators being unable to eat under water, on seizing a fish, raise their heads above the surface, and by degrees draw the fish from their jaws, and chew it for deglutition.

Before the setting in of winter, it is said, not without evidence to support the assertion, that they swallow a large number of pine knots, and then creep into their dens, in the bank of some creek or pond, where they lie in a torpid state through the winter without any other sustenance than the pine knots.

The GUANA, the GREEN LIZARD of Carolina, the BLUE-TAILED LIZARD, and the LION LIZARD are found in the southern states, and are thought to be species of the same *genus*, with the crocodile and alligator.

In the little brooks, and swamps in the back parts of North Carolina, is caught a small amphibious lobster, in the head of which is found the eye stone.

Population, Character, &c.] From the best accounts that can at present be obtained, there are, within the limits of the United States, three millions, eighty three thousand, and six hundred souls. This number which is rapidly increasing both by emigrations from Europe, and by natural population, is composed of people of almost all nations, languages, characters and religions. The greater part, however, are descended from the English; and, for the sake of distinction, are called Anglo-Americans.

The natural genius of Americans, not through prejudice we would charitably suppose, but through want of information, has suffered in the descriptions of some ingenious and eloquent European writers.

The Count de Buffon has endeavoured to support the theory, 'That on this side the Atlantic, there is a tendency in nature to belittle her productions.' This new and unsupported theory, has been applied, by the Abbe Raynal, to the race of whites transplanted from Europe. Mr. Jefferson has confuted this theory; and by the ingenuity and abilities which he has shewn in doing it, has exhibited an instance of its falsehood*

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* *Although the Abbe, in a later edition of his works, has withdrawn his censure from that part of America inhabited by Federo-Americans; yet he has left it in its full force on the other parts, where it is equally inapplicable, if we consider*

The assertion of the Abbe Raynal, that "America has not yet produced one good poet, one able mathematician, one man of genius in a single art or a single science *,' produced the following reply from Mr. Jefferson.

'When we shall have existed as a people as long as the Greeks did before they produced a Homer, the Romans a Virgil, the French a Racine and Voltaire, the English a Shakspeare and Milton, should this reproach be still true, we will enquire from what unfriendly causes it has proceeded, that the other coutries of Europe, and quarters of the earth, shall not have inscribed any name in the roll of poets. In war we have produced a WASHINGTON, whose memory will be adored while liberty shall have votaries. whose name will triumph over time, and will in future ages assume its just station among the most celebrated worthies of the world, when that wretched philosophy shall be forgotton which would arrange him among the degeneracies of nature. In physics we have produced a FRANKLIN, than whom no one of the present age has made more important discoveries, nor has enriched philosophy with more, or more ingenious solutions of the phenomena of nature. We have supposed Mr. RITTENHOUSE second to no astronomer living: that in genius he must be the first, because he is self-taught. As an artist he has exhibited as great proofs of mechanical genius as the world has ever produced. He has not indeed made a world; but he has by imitation approached nearer its Maker than any man who has lived from the creation to this day. As in philosophy and war so in government, in oratory, in painting, in the plastic art, we might shew that America, though but a child of yesterday, has already given hopeful proofs of genius, as well of the nobler kinds, which arouse the best feellings of man, which call him into action, which substantiate his freedom, and conduct him to happiness, as of the subordinate, which serve to amuse him only. We therefore suppose, that this reproach is as unjust as it is unkind, and that, of the geniuses which adorn the present age. America contributes its full share. For comparing it with those countries, where genius is most cultivated, where are the most excellent models for art, and scaffoldings for the attainment of science, as France and England for instance, we calculate thus. The United States contain three millions of inhabitants; France twenty millions; and the British islands ten. We produce a Washington, a Franklin, a Rittenhouse. France then should have half a dozen in each of these lines, and Great-Britain half that number, equally eminent. It may be true, that France has—we are but just becoming acquainted with her, and our acquaintance so far gives us high ideas of the genius of her inhabitants. It would be injuring too many of them to name particularly a Voltaire, a Buffon, the constellation of Encyclopedists, the Abbe Raynal himself, &c. &c. We therefore have reason to believe she can produce her full quota of genius. The

consider the accumulated pressure of slavery, superstition and ignorance, under which the inhabitants are held. Whenever they shall be able to throw off their shackles, and act themselves, they will doubtless shew that they are like the rest of the world.

* Hist. Philos. P. 92. ed. Meastrch, 1774.

The preſent war having ſo long cut off all communication with Great-Britain, we are not able to make a fair eſtimate of the ſtate of ſcience in that country.'

The Literature of the United States is very flouriſhing. Their progreſs in the art of war, in the ſcience of government, in philoſophy and aſtronomy, in poetry, and the various liberal arts and ſciences, has, for ſo young a country, been aſtoniſhing. Colleges are inſtituted in all the ſtates north of North-Carolina, excepting Delaware; and liberal proviſion is making for their eſtabliſhment in the others, Theſe colleges are generally well furniſhed with libraries, apparatus, inſtructors and ſtudents.

The two late important revolutions in America, which have been ſcarcely exceeded ſince the memory of man, I mean that of the declaration and eſtabliſhment of independence, and that of the adoption of a new form of government without bloodſhed, have called to hiſtoric fame many noble and diſtinguiſhed characters, who might otherwiſe have ſlept in oblivion.

But while we exhibit the fair ſide of the character of Federo-Americans, we would not be thought blind to their faults.

A European writer has juſtly obſerved, that 'if there be an object truly ridiculous in nature, it is an American patriot, ſigning reſolutions of independency with the one hand, and with the other brandiſhing a whip over his affrighted ſlaves.'

Much has been written of late to ſhew the injuſtice and iniquity of enſlaving the Africans; ſo much as to render it unneceſſary here to ſay any thing on that part of the ſubject. We cannot, however, forbear introducing a few obſervations reſpecting the influence of ſlavery upon policy, morals and manners. From repeated and accurate calculations, it has been found, that the expence of maintaining a ſlave, eſpecially if we include the purchaſe-money, is greater than that of maintaining a free man; and the labour of the free man, influenced by the powerful motive of gain, is at leaſt twice as profitable to the employer as that of the ſlave. Beſides, ſlavery is the bane of induſtry. It renders labour, among the whites, not only unfaſhonable, but diſreputable. Induſtry is the offſpring of neceſſity rather than of choice. Slavery precludes this neceſſity; and indolence, which ſtrikes at the root of all ſocial and political happineſs, is the unhappy conſequence.

Theſe obſervations, without adding any thing upon the injuſtice of the practice, ſhew that ſlavery is impolitic. Its influence on manners and morals is equally pernicious. The negro wenches in many, perhaps I may ſay in moſt inſtance, are nurſes to their miſtreſſes children. The Infant babe, as ſoon as it is born, is delivered to its black nurſe, and perhaps ſeldom or never taſtes a drop of its mother's milk. The children, by being brought up, and conſtantly aſſociating with the negroes, too often imbibe their low ideas, and vitiated manners and morals; and contract a *negroiſh* kind of accent and dialect, which they often carry with them through life. A miſchief common, in a greater or leſs degree, in all the ſouthern ſtates, at which humanity and decency bluſh, is the criminal intercourſe between the whites and blacks. 'The enjoyment of a negro or mulatto woman,' ſays a traveller of obſervation, 'is ſpoken of as quite a common thing. No reluctance, delicacy, or ſhame, appear about the

matter. It is far from being uncommon to see a gentleman at dinner and his reputed offspring a slave, waiting at the table. 'I myself,' says this writer, 'saw two instances of this kind; and the company would very facetiously trace the features of the father and mother in the child, and very accurately point out the more characteristic resemblances. The fathers neither of them blushed, nor seemed disconcerted. They were called men of worth, politeness, and humanity. Strange perversion of terms and language! The Africans are said to be inferior in point of sense, understanding, sentiment and feeling to white people: Hence the one infers a right to enslave the other. The African labours night and day to collect a small pittance to purchase the freedom of his child: The white man begets his likeness, and with much indifference and dignity of soul, sees his offspring in bondage and misery, and makes not one effort to redeem his own blood. Choice food for satire! wide field for burlesque! noble game for wit! sad cause for pity to bleed, and for humanity to weep! unless the enkindled blood inflame resentment, and vent itself into execrations!'

To these I shall add the observations of a native* of a state which contains a greater number of slaves than any of the others. For although his observations upon the influence of slavery were intended for a particular state, they will apply equally well to all places where this pernicious practice in any considerable degree prevails.

'There must, doubtless,' he observes, 'be an unhappy influence on the manners of our people produced by the existence of slavery among us. The whole commerce between master and slave is a perpetual exercise of the most boisterous passions, the most unremitting despotism on the one part, and degrading submissions on the other. Our children see this, and learn to imitate it; for man is an imitative animal. This quality is the germ of all education in him. From his cradle to his grave he is learning to do what he sees others do. If a parent could find no motive either in his philanthropy or his self-love, for restraining the intemperance of passion towards his slave, it should always be a sufficient one that his child is present. But generally it is not sufficient. The parent storms, the child looks on, catches the lineaments of wrath, puts on the same airs in the circle of smaller slaves, gives a loose to his worst of passions, and thus nursed, educated, and daily exercised in tyranny, cannot but be stamped by it with odious peculiarities. The man must be a prodigy who can retain his manners and morals undepraved by such circumstances. And with what execration should the statesman be loaded, who permitting one half the citizens thus to trample on the rights of the other, transforms those into despots, and these into enemies, destroys the morals of the one part, and the *amor patriæ* of the other. For if a slave can have a country in this world, it must be any other in preference to that in which he is born to live and labour for another: in which he must lock up the faculties of his nature, contribute as far as depends on his individual endeavours to the evanishment of the human race, or entail his own miserable condition on the endless generations proceeding from him. With the morals of the people, their industry also is destroyed. For in a warm climate, no man will labour for himself who can make another labour for him. This is so

* Mr. Jefferson.

ſo true, that of the proprietors of ſlaves a very ſmall proportion indeed are ever ſeen to labour. And can the liberties of a nation be thought ſecure when we have removed their only firm baſis, a conviction in the minds of the people that theſe liberties are the gift of God? That they are not to be violated but with his wrath? Indeed I tremble for my country when I reflect that God is juſt: that his juſtice cannot ſleep for ever; that conſidering numbers, nature and natural means only, a revolution of the wheel of fortune, and exchange of ſituation, is among poſſible events: that it may become probable by ſupernatural interference!—The Almighty has no attribute which can take ſide with us in ſuch a conteſt. But it is impoſſile to be temperate and to purſue this ſubject through the various conſiderations of policy, of morals, of hiſtory natural and civil. We muſt be contented to hope they will force their way into every one's mind. I think a change already perceptible, ſince the origin of the preſent revolution. The ſpirit of the maſter is abating, that of the ſlave riſing from the duſt, his condition mollifying, the way I hope preparing, under the auſpices of heaven, for a total emancipation; and that this is diſpoſed, in the order of events, to be with the conſent of the maſters, rather than by their extirpation.'

Under the fœderal government which is now eſtabliſhed, we have reaſon to believe that all ſlaves in the United States will in time be emancipated, in a manner moſt conſiſtent with their own happineſs, and the true intereſt of their proprietors. Whether this will be affected by tranſporting them back to Africa; or by colonizing them in ſome part of our own territory, and extending to them our alliance and protection until they ſhall have acquired ſtrength ſufficient for their own defence; or by incorporation with the whites; or in ſome other way, remains to be determined. All theſe methods are attended with difficulties. The firſt would be cruel; the ſecond dangerous; and the latter diſagreable and unnatural. Deep-rooted prejudices entertained by the whites; ten thouſand recollections, by the blacks, of the injuries they have ſuſtained; new provocations; the real diſtinction which nature has made; beſides many other circumſtances which would tend to divide them into parties, and produce convulſions, are, objections againſt retaining and incorporating the blacks with the citizens of the ſeveral ſtates. But juſtice and humanity demand that theſe difficulties ſhould be ſurmounted.

In the middle and northern ſtates, there are comparatively but few ſlaves; and of courſe there is leſs difficulty in giving them their freedom. Societies for the manumiſſion of ſlaves have been inſtituted in Philadelphia and New-York; and laws have been enacted, and other meaſures taken in the New-England ſtates to accompliſh the ſame purpoſe. The FRIENDS, (commonly called Quakers,) have evinced the propriety of their name, by their goodneſs in originating, and their vigorous exertions in executing, this truly humane and benevolent deſign.

The Engliſh language is the one which is univerſally ſpoken in the United States, in which buſineſs is tranſacted, and the records kept. It is ſpoken with great purity, and pronounced with propriety in New-England, by perſons of education; and, excepting ſome few corruptions in pronunciation, by all ranks of people. In the middle and ſouthern ſtates, where they have had a great influx of foreigners, the language in many inſtances

is corrupted, eſpecially in pronunciation. Attempts are making to introduce a uniformity of pronunciation throughout the States, which for political as well as other reaſons it is hoped will meet the approbation and encouragement of all literary and influential characters.

Intermingled with the Anglo-Americans are the Dutch, Scotch, Iriſh, French, Germans, Swedes and Jews; all theſe, except the Scotch and Iriſh, retain, in a greater or leſs degree, their native language, in which they perform their public worſhip, converſe and tranſact their buſineſs with each other.

The time, however, is anticipated when all diſtinctions between maſter and ſlave ſhall be aboliſhed; and when the language, manners, cuſtoms, political and religious ſentiments of the mixed maſs of people who inhabit the United States, ſhall have become ſo aſſimilated, as that all nominal diſtinctions ſhall be loſt in the general and honourable name of AMERICANS.

Government.] Until the fourth of July, 1776, the preſent Thirteen States were Britiſh colonies. On that memorable day, the Repreſentatives of the United States of America, in Congreſs aſſembled, made a ſolemn declaration, in which they aſſigned their reaſons for withdrawing their allegiance from the king of Great-Britain. Appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of their intentions, they did, in the name and by the authority of the good people of the colonies, ſolemnly publiſh and declare, That theſe United Colonies were, and of right ought to be FREE and INDEPENDENT States; that they were abſolved from all allegiance to the Britiſh crown, and that all political connection between them and Great Britain was, and ought to be totally diſſolved; and that as Free and Independent States, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, eſtabliſh commerce, and do all other acts and things which Independent States may of right do. For the ſupport of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of divine providence, the delegates then in Congreſs, fifty-five in number, mutually pledged to each other their lives, their fortunes, and their ſacred honour.

At the ſame time they publiſhed articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union between the States, in which they took the ſtyle of "THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA," and agreed that each ſtate ſhould retain its ſovereignty, freedom, and independence, and every power, juriſdiction and right not expreſsly delegated to Congreſs by the confederation. By theſe articles the Thirteen United States ſeverally entered into a firm league of friendſhip with each other for their common defence, the ſecurity of their liberties, and their mutual and general welfare, and bound themſelves to aſſiſt each other, againſt all force offered to, or attacks that might be made upon all, or any of them, on account of religion, ſovereignty, commerce, or any other pretence whatever. But for the more convenient management of the general intereſts of the United States it was determined that Delegates ſhould be annually appointed, in ſuch manner as the Legiſlature of each State ſhould direct, to meet in Congreſs the firſt Monday in November of every year, with a power reſerved to each ſtate to recal its delegates, or any of them, at any time within the year, and to ſend

ſend others in their ſtead for the remainder of the year. No ſtate was to be repreſented in Congreſs by leſs than two, or more than ſeven members; and no perſon could be a delegate for more than three years, in any term of ſix years; nor was any perſon, being a delegate, capable of holding any office under the United States, for which he, or any other for his benefit, ſhould receive any ſalary, fees, or emolument of any kind. In determining queſtions in Congreſs, each ſtate was to have one vote. Every ſtate was bound to abide by the determination of Congreſs, in all queſtions which were ſubmitted to them by the confederation. The articles of confederation were to be invariably obſerved by every ſtate, and the union to be perpetual; nor was any alteration at any time hereafter to be made in any of the articles, unleſs ſuch alterations be agreed to in Congreſs, and be afterwards confirmed by the legiſlatures of every ſtate. The articles of confederation were ratified by Congreſs, July 9, 1778.

Theſe articles of confederation, after eleven years experience, being found inadequate to the purpoſes of a fœderal government, for reaſons hereafter mentioned, delegates were choſen in each of the United States, to meet and fix upon the neceſſary amendments. They accordingly met in convention at Philadelphia, in the ſummer of 1787, and agreed to propoſe the following conſtitution for the conſideration of their conſtituents:

WE, the People of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, eſtabliſh juſtice, inſure domeſtic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and ſecure the bleſſings of liberty to ourſelves and our poſterity, do ordain and eſtabliſh this Conſtitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I.

Sect. 1. ALL legiſlative powers herein granted ſhall be veſted in a Congreſs of the United States, which ſhall conſiſt of a Senate and Houſe of Repreſentatives.

Sect. 2. The Houſe of Repreſentatives ſhall be compoſed of members choſen every ſecond year by the people of the ſeveral ſtates, and the electors in each ſtate ſhall have the qualifications requiſite for electors of the moſt numerous branch of the ſtate legiſlature.

No perſon ſhall be a repreſentative who ſhall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been ſeven years a citizen of the United States, and who ſhall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that ſtate in which he ſhall be choſen.

Repreſentatives and direct taxes ſhall be apportioned among the ſeveral ſtates which may be included within this Union, according to their reſpective numbers, which ſhall be determined by adding to the whole number of free perſons, including thoſe bound to ſervice for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other perſons. The actual enumeration ſhall be made within three years after the firſt meeting of the Congreſs of the United States, and within every ſubſequent term of ten years, in ſuch manner as they ſhall by law direct. The number of repreſentatives ſhall not exceed one for every thirty thouſand but each ſtate ſhall have at leaſt one repreſentative; and until ſuch enumeration ſhall be made, the ſtate of New-Hampſhire ſhall be entitled to

chooſe

chooſe three, Maſſachuſetts eight, Rhode-Iſland and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New-York ſix, New-Jerſey four, Pennſylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland ſix, Virginia ten, North-Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

When vacancies happen in the repreſentation from any ſtate, the Executive authority thereof ſhall iſſue writs of election to fill ſuch vacancies.

The Houſe of Repreſentatives ſhall chooſe their Speaker and other officers; and ſhall have the ſole power of impeachment.

Sect. 3. The Senate of the United States ſhall be compoſed of two ſenators from each ſtate, choſen by the legiſlature thereof, for ſix years; and each ſenator ſhall have one vote.

Immediately after they ſhall be aſſembled in conſequence of the firſt election, they ſhall be divided as equally as may be into three claſſes. The ſeats of the ſenators of the firſt claſs ſhall be vacated at the expiration of the ſecond year; of the ſecond claſs at the expiration of the fourth year; and of the third claſs at the expiration of the ſixth year, ſo that one-third may be choſen every ſecond year; and if vacancies happen by reſignation, or otherwiſe, during the receſs of the legiſlature of any ſtate, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legiſlature, which ſhall then fill ſuch vacancies.

No perſon ſhall be a ſenator who ſhall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who ſhall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that ſtate for which he ſhall be choſen.

The vice-preſident of the United States, ſhall be preſident of the ſenate, but ſhall have no vote, unleſs they be equally divided.

The ſenate ſhall chooſe their other officers, and alſo a preſident *pro-tempore*, in the abſence of the vice-preſident, or when he ſhall exerciſe the office of preſident of the United State.

The ſenate ſhall have the ſole power to try all impeachments. When ſitting for that purpoſe, they ſhall be on oath or affirmation. When the preſident of the United States is tried, the chief juſtice ſhall preſide: And no perſon ſhall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members preſent.

Judgment in caſes of impeachment ſhall not extend further than to removal from office, and diſqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honour, truſt, or profit under the United States; but the party convicted ſhall nevertheleſs by liable and ſubject to indictment, trial, judgment, and puniſhment according to law.

Sect. 4. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for ſenators and repreſentatives, ſhall be preſcribed in each ſtate by the legiſlature thereof; but the Congreſs may at any time by law make or alter ſuch regulations, except as the places of chooſing ſenators.

The Congreſs ſhall aſſemble at leaſt once in every year, and ſuch meeting ſhall be on the firſt Monday in December, unleſs they ſhall by law appoint a different day.

Sect. 5. Each houſe ſhall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each ſhall conſtitute a quorum to do buſineſs; but a ſmaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authoriſed to compel the attendance of abſent members,

members, in such manner, and under such penalties as each house may provide.

Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behaviour, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member

Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question shall, at the desire of one fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

Sect. 6. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

No Senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States, shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

Sect. 7. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the house of representatives; but the senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

Every bill which shall have passed the house of representatives and the senate, shall, before it becomes a law, be presented to the president of the United States; if he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objection at large on their journal, and proceed to re-consider it. If after such re-consideration two-thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that house it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the president within ten days, (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress, by their adjournment, prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

Every order, resolution, or vote, to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the president of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or, being disapproved by him, shall be re-passed by two thirds of the Senate and House

of

of Repreſentatives, according to the rules and limitations preſcribed in the caſe of a bill.

Sect. 8. The Congreſs ſhall have power

To lay and collect taxes, duties, impoſts, and exciſes: to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, impoſts, and exciſes ſhall be uniform throughout the United States;

To borrow money on the credit of the United States:

To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the ſeveral ſtates, and with the Indian tribes;

To eſtabliſh an uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the ſubject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the ſtandard of weights and meaſures;

To provide for the puniſhment of counterfeiting the ſecurities and current coin of the United States;

To eſtabliſh poſt offices and poſt roads;

To promote the progreſs of ſcience and uſeful arts, by ſecuring, for limited times, to authors and inventors the excluſive right to their reſpective writings and diſcoveries;

To conſtitute tribunals inferior to the ſupreme court;

To define and puniſh piracies and felonies committed on the high ſeas, and offences againſt the law of nations.

To declare war, grant letters of marque and repriſal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

To raiſe and ſupport armies, but no appropriation of money to that uſe ſhall be for a longer term than two years;

To provide and maintain a navy;

To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

To provide for the calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the union, ſuppreſs inſurrections, and repel invaſions;

To provide for organizing, arming, and diſciplining the militia, and for governing ſuch part of them as may be employed in the ſervice of the United States, reſerving to the ſtates reſpectively, the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the diſcipline preſcribed by Congreſs;

To exerciſe excluſive legiſlation in all caſes whatſoever, over ſuch diſtrict not exceeding ten miles ſquare) as may, by ceſſion of particular ſtates, and the acceptance of Congreſs, become the ſeat of government of the United States, and to exerciſe like authority over all places purchaſed by the conſent of the legiſlature of the ſtate in which the ſame ſhall be for the erection of forts, magazines, arſenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings;—And

To make all laws which ſhall be neceſſary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers veſted by this conſtitution in the government of the United States, or in any department, or office thereof.

Sect. 9. The migration or importation of ſuch perſons as any of the ſtates now exiſting ſhall think proper to admit, ſhall not be prohibited by the

the Congreſs prior to the year one thouſand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be impoſed on ſuch importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each perſon.

The privilledge of the writ of habeas corpus ſhall not be ſuſpended, unleſs when in caſes of rebellion or invaſion the public ſafety may require it.

No bill of attainder or ex poſt facto law ſhall be paſſed.

No capitation, or other direct tax, ſhall be laid, unleſs in proportion to the cenſus or enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

No tax or duty ſhall be laid on articles exported from any ſtate.—No preference ſhall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one ſtate over thoſe of another: nor ſhall veſſels bound to, or from, one ſtate, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

No money ſhall be drawn from the treaſury, but in conſequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular ſtatement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money ſhall be publiſhed from time to time.

No title of the nobility ſhall be granted by the United States:—And no perſon holding any office of profit or truſt under them, ſhall, without the conſent of the Congreſs, accept of any preſent, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign ſtate.

Sect. 10. No ſtate ſhall enter into any treaty, aliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and repriſals; coin money; emit bills of credit; make any thing but gold and ſilver coin a tender in payment of debts; paſs any bill of attainder, ex poſt facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

No ſtate ſhall, without the conſent of the Congreſs, lay any impoſts or duties on imports or exports except what may be abſolutely neceſſary for executing its inſpection laws; and the net produce of all duties and impoſts, laid by any ſtate on imports or exports, ſhall be for the uſe of the Treaſury of the United States; and all ſuch laws ſhall be ſubject to the reviſion and control of the Congreſs. No ſtate ſhall, without the conſent of Congreſs, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ſhips of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another ſtate, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unleſs actually invaded, or in ſuch imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II.

Sect. 1. The executive power ſhall be veſted in a preſident of the United States of America. He ſhall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the vice-preſident, choſen for the ſame term, be elected as follows:

Each ſtate ſhall appoint, in ſuch manner as the legiſlature thereof may direct, a number of electors equal to the whole number of ſenators and repreſentatives to which the ſtate may be entitled in the Congreſs: but no ſenator or repreſentative, or perſon holding an office of truſt or profit under the United States, ſhall be appointed an elector.

The electors ſhall meet in their reſpective ſtates, and vote by ballot for two perſons, of whom one at leaſt ſhall be an inhabitant of the ſame ſtate with themſelves. And they ſhall make a liſt of all the perſons voted for,

for, and of the number of votes for each; which lift they ſhall ſign and certify, and tranſmit ſealed to the ſeat of the government of the United States, directed to the preſident of the ſenate. The preſident of the ſenate ſhall, in the preſence of the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives, open all the certificates and all the votes ſhall be then counted. The perſon having the greateſt number of votes ſhall be the preſident, if ſuch number be a majority of the whole number of the electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have ſuch majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the houſe of repreſentatives ſhall immediately choſe by ballot one of them for preſident; and if no perſon have a majority, then from the five higheſt on the liſt, the ſaid houſe ſhall in like manner chooſe the preſident. But in chooſing the preſident, the votes ſhall be taken by ſtates, the repreſentations from each ſtate having one vote; a quorum for this purpoſe ſhall conſiſt of a member or members from two-thirds of the ſtates, and a majority of all the ſtates ſhall be neceſſary to a choice. In every caſe, after the choice of the preſident, the perſon having the greateſt number of votes of the electors ſhall be the vice-preſident. But if there ſhould remain two or more who have equal votes, the ſenate ſhall chooſe from them by ballot a vice-preſident.

The Congreſs may determine the time of chooſing the electors, and the day on which they ſhall give their votes; which day ſhall be the ſame throughout the United States.

No perſon, except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the United States, at the time of the adoption of this conſtitution, ſhall be eligible to the office of preſident; neither ſhall any perſon be eligible to that office who ſhall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a reſident within the United States.

In caſe of the removal of the preſident from office, or of his death, reſignation, or inability to diſcharge the powers and duties of the ſaid office, the ſame ſhall devolve on the vice-preſident, and the Congreſs may by law provide for the caſe of removal, death, reſignation, or inability, both of the preſident and vice-preſident, declaring what officer ſhall then act as preſident, and ſuch officer ſhall act accordingly, until the diſability be removed, or a preſident ſhall be elected.

The preſident ſhall, at ſtated times, receive for his ſervices a compenſation, which ſhall neither be encreaſed nor diminiſhed during the period for which he ſhall have been elected, and he ſhall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Before he enter on the execution of his office, he ſhall take the following oath or affirmation:

"I do ſolemnly ſwear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of preſident of the United States, and will to the beſt of my ability, preſerve, protect, and defend the conſtitution of the United States."

Sect. 2. The preſident ſhall be commander in chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the ſeveral ſtates, when called into the actual ſervice of the United States; he may require the opinion in writing, of the principle officer in each of the executive departments, upon any ſubject relating to the duties of their reſpective offices, and he ſhall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences againſt the United States, except in caſes of impeachment.

He

He ſhall have power, by and with the advice and conſent of the ſenate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the ſenators preſent concur; and he ſhall nominate, and by and with the advice and conſent of the ſenate ſhall appoint ambaſſadors, other public miniſters and conſuls, judges of the ſupreme court, and all other officers of the United States, whoſe appointments are not herein otherwiſe provided for, and which ſhall be eſtabliſhed by law. But the Congreſs may by law veſt the appointment of ſuch inferior officers, as they think proper, in the preſident alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

The preſident ſhall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the receſs of the ſenate, by granting commiſſions which ſhall expire at the end of their next ſeſſion.

Sect. 3. He ſhall from time to time give to the Congreſs information of the ſtate of the union, and recommend to their conſideration ſuch meaſures as he ſhall judge neceſſary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occaſions, convene both houſes, or either of them, and in caſe of diſagreement between them, with reſpect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to ſuch time as he ſhall think proper; he ſhall receive ambaſſadors and other public miniſters; he ſhall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and ſhall commiſſion all the officers of the United States.

Sect. 4. The preſident, vice-preſident, and all civil officers of the United States, ſhall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treaſon, bribery, or other high crimes and miſdemeanors.

ARTICLE III.

Sect. 1. The Judicial power of the United States ſhall be veſted in one ſupreme court, and in ſuch inferior courts as the Congreſs may from time to time ordain and eſtabliſh. The judges, both of the ſupreme and inferior courts, ſhall hold their offices during good behaviour, and ſhall, at ſtated times, receive for their ſervices, a compenſation, which ſhall not be diminiſhed during their continuance in office.

Sect. 2. The Judicial power ſhall extend to all caſes, in law and equity, ariſing under this conſtitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which ſhall be made, under their authority; to all caſes affecting ambaſſadors, other public miniſters and conſuls; to all caſes of admiralty and maritime juriſdiction; to controverſies to which the United States ſhall be a party; to controverſies between two or more ſtates, between a ſtate and citizens of another ſtate, between citizens of different ſtates, between citizens of the ſame ſtate claiming lands under grants of different ſtates, and between a ſtate, or the citizens thereof, and foreign ſtates, citizens, or ſubjects.

In all caſes affecting ambaſſadors, other public miniſters and conſuls, and thoſe in which a ſtate ſhall be party, the ſupreme court ſhall have original juriſdiction. In all the other caſes before-mentioned, the ſupreme court ſhall have appellate juriſdiction, both as to law and fact, with ſuch exceptions, and under ſuch regulations as the Congreſs ſhall make.

The trial of all crimes, except in caſes of impeachment, ſhall be by jury; and ſuch trial ſhall be held in the ſtate where the ſaid crime ſhall have been committed; but when not committed within any ſtate, the trial ſhall be at ſuch place or places as the Congreſs may by law have directed.

Sect.

Sect. 3. Treaſon againſt the United States ſhall conſiſt only in levying war againſt them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No perſon ſhall be convicted of treaſon unleſs on the teſtimony of two witneſſes to the ſame overt act, or on confeſſion in open court.

The Congreſs ſhall have power to declare the puniſhment of treaſon, but no attainder of treaſon ſhall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the perſon attainted.

ARTICLE IV.

Sect. 1. Full faith and credit ſhall be given in each ſtate to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other ſtate. And the Congreſs may by general laws preſcribe the manner in which ſuch acts, records, and proceedings ſhall be proved, and the effect thereof.

Sect. 2. The citizens of each ſtate ſhall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the ſeveral ſtates.

A perſon charged in any ſtate with treaſon, felony, or other crime, who ſhall flee from juſtice, and be found in another ſtate, ſhall on demand of the executive authority of the ſtate from which he fled be delivered up, to be removed to the ſtate having juriſdiction of the crime.

No perſon held to ſervice or labour in one ſtate, under the laws thereof, eſcaping into another, ſhall in conſequence of any law or regulation therein, be diſcharged from ſuch ſervice or labour, but ſhall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom ſuch ſervice or labour may be due.

Sect. 3. New ſtates may be admitted by the Congreſs into this union, but no new ſtate ſhall be formed or erected within the juriſdiction of any other ſtate; nor any ſtate be formed by the junction of two or more ſtates, or parts of ſtates, without the conſent of the legiſlatures of the ſtates concerned as well as of the Congreſs.

The Congreſs ſhall have power to diſpoſe of and make all needful rules and regulations reſpecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this conſtitution ſhall be ſo conſtrued as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular ſtate.

Sect. 4. The United States ſhall guarantee to every ſtate in this union a republican form of government and ſhall protect each of them againſt invaſion; and on application of the legiſlature, or of the executive (when the legiſlature cannot be convened) againſt domeſtic violence.

ARTICLE V.

The Congreſs, whenever two-thirds of both houſes ſhall deem it neceſſary, ſhall propoſe amendments to this conſtitution; or, on the application of the legiſlatures of two-thirds of the ſeveral ſtates, ſhall call a convention for propoſing amendments, which, in either caſe, ſhall be valid to all intents and purpoſes, as part of this conſtitution, when ratified by the legiſlatures of three-fourths of the ſeveral ſtates, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be propoſed by the Congreſs: Provided, that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thouſand eight hundred and eight, ſhall in any manner affect the firſt and fourth clauſes in the ninth ſection of the firſt article; and that no ſtate, without its conſent, ſhall be deprived of its equal ſuffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE

ARTICLE VI.

All debts contracted and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this conſtitution, ſhall be as valid againſt the United States under this conſtitution, as under the confederation.

This conſtitution, and the laws of the United States which ſhall be made in purſuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which ſhall be made, under the authority of the United States, ſhall be the ſupreme law of the land; and the judges in every ſtate ſhall be bound thereby, any thing in the conſtitution or laws of any ſtate to the contrary notwithſtanding.

The ſenators and repreſentatives before-mentioned, and the members of the ſeveral ſtate legiſlatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the ſeveral ſtates, ſhall be bound by oath or affirmation, to ſupport this conſtitution; but no religious teſt ſhall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public truſt under the United States.

ARTICLE VII.

The ratification of the conventions of nine ſtates, ſhall be ſufficient for the eſtabliſhment of this conſtitution between the ſtates ſo ratifying the ſame.

DONE in Convention, by the unanimous conſent of the ſtates preſent, the ſeventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord One Thouſand Seven Hundred and Eighty-ſeven, and of the Independance of the United States of America the Twelfth. In witneſs whereof, we have hereunto ſubſcribed our names.

GEORGE WASHINGTON, *Preſident.*

Signed alſo by all the Delegates which were preſent from twelve States.

Atteſt. WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary.*

In CONVENTION, Monday September 17, 1787.

PRESENT,

The States of New-Hampſhire, Maſſachuſetts, Connecticut, Mr. Hamilton from New-York, New-Jerſey, Pennſylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North-Carolina, South-Carolina and Georgia.

Reſolved,

THAT the preceding conſtitution be laid before the United States in Congreſs aſſembled, and that it is the opinion of this Convention, that it ſhould afterwards be ſubmitted to a convention of Delegates, choſen in each ſtate by the people thereof, under the recommendation of its Legiſlature, for their aſſent and ratification; and that each convention aſſenting to, and ratifying the ſame, ſhould give notice thereof to the United States in Congreſs aſſembled.

RESOLVED, That it is the opinion of this convention, that as ſoon as the conventions of nine ſtates ſhall have ratified this conſtitution, the United States in Congreſs aſſembled, ſhould fix a day on which Electors ſhould be appointed by the ſtates which ſhall have ratified the ſame, and a day on which the Electors ſhould aſſemble to vote for the Preſident, and the time and place for commencing proceedings under this conſtitution. That after ſuch publication, the Electors ſhould be appointed, and the

the ſenators and repreſentatives elected: That the electors ſhould meet on the day fixed for the election of the Preſident, and ſhould tranſmit their votes certified, ſigned, ſealed and directed, as the conſtitution requires, to the Secretary of the United States in Congreſs aſſembled; that the ſenators and repreſentatives ſhould convene at the time and place aſſigned; that the ſenators ſhould appoint a Preſident of the ſenate, for the ſole purpoſe of receiving, opening and counting the votes for Preſident; and, that after he ſhall be choſen, the Congreſs, together with the Preſident, ſhould, without delay, proceed to execute this Conſtitution.

By the unanimous order of the Convention,

GEORGE WASHINGTON, *Preſident.*

WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary.*

In CONVENTION, September 17, 1787.

SIR,

WE have now the honour to ſubmit to the conſideration of the United States in Congreſs aſſembled, that conſtitution which has appeared to us the moſt adviſable.

The friends of our country have long ſeen and deſired, that the powers of making war, peace and treaties, that of levying money and regulating commerce, and the correſponding executive and judicial authorities ſhould be fully and effectually veſted in the general government of the union: but the impropriety of delegating ſuch an extenſive truſt to one body of men is evident.—Hence reſults the neceſſity of a different organization.

It is obviouſly impracticable in the federal government of theſe ſtates to ſecure all rights of independant ſovereignty to each, and yet provide for the intereſt and ſafety of all.—Individuals entering into ſociety, muſt give up a ſhare of liberty to preſerve the reſt. The magnitude of the ſacrifice muſt depend as well on ſituation and circumſtances, as on the object to be obtained. It is at all times difficult to draw with preciſion the line between thoſe rights which muſt be ſurrendered, and thoſe which may be reſerved; and on the preſent occaſion this difficulty was encreaſed by a difference among the ſeveral ſtates as to their ſituation, extent, habits and particular intereſts.

In all our deliberations on this ſubject, we kept ſteadily in our view that which appears to us the greateſt intereſt of every true American, the conſolidation of our union, in which is involved our proſperity, felicity, ſafety, perhaps our national exiſtence. This important conſideration ſeriouſly and deeply impreſſed on our minds, led each ſtate in the convention to be leſs rigid on points of inferior magnitude, than might have been otherwiſe expected; and thus the conſtitution, which we now preſent, is the reſult of a ſpirit of amity, and of that mutual deference and conceſſion which the peculiarity of our political ſituation rendered indiſpenſible.

That it will meet the full and entire approbation of every ſtate is not perhaps to be expected: but each will doubtleſs conſider that had her intereſts been alone conſulted, the conſequences might have been particularly diſagreeable or injurious to others: That it is liable to as few exceptions as could reaſonably have been expected, we hope and believe: That

it may promote the lasting welfare of that country so dear to us all, and secure her freedom and happiness, is our most ardent wish.

With great respect, we have the honour to be, Sir, Your Excellency's most obedient, and humble servants,

GEORGE WASHINGTON, *President.*

By unanimous order of the Convention.

His Excellency the President of Congress.

ELEVEN states having already ratified the above constitution, Congress, agreeably to the seventh article, have taken the proper measures for its organization and establishment between the ratifying states.

Society of the Cincinnati.] This society has made so much noise both in Europe and America, and has derived such dignity and importance from the characters who compose it, that it is thought proper to insert the institution at large, for the information of the uninformed, and for the gratification of the respectable members of the Cincinnati, who wish to have their friendly and charitable intentions fully understood by all classes of their fellow-citizens.

The INSTITUTION of the SOCIETY of the CINCINNATI, as altered and amended at their first general meeting at Philadelphia, May, 1784.

'IT having pleased the supreme governor of the universe to give success to the arms of our country, and to establish the United States free and independent: Therefore, gratefully to commemorate this event,—to inculcate to the latest ages the duty of laying down in peace, arms assumed for public defence, by forming an institution which recognizes that most important principle,—to continue the mutual friendships which commenced under the pressure of common danger, and effectuate the acts of beneficence, dictated by the spirit of brotherly kindness, towards those officers and their families, who unfortunately may be under the necessity of receiving them; the officers of the American army do hereby constitute themselves into *A society of friends:* and, possessing the highest veneration for the character of that illustrious Roman, *Lucius Quintius Cincinnatus*, denominate themselves THE SOCIETY OF THE CINCINNATI.

Sect. I. 'The persons who constitute this society, are all the commissioned and brevet officers of the army and navy of the United States, who have served three years, and who left the service with reputation, all officers who were in actual service at the conclusion of the war; all the principal staff-officers of the continental army; and the officers who have been deranged by the several resolutions of Congress, upon the different reforms of the army.

Sect. II. "There are also admitted into this society, the late and present ministers of his most christian majesty to the United States; all the generals and colonels of regiments and legions of the land forces; all the admirals and captains of the navy, ranking as colonels, who have co-operated with the armies of the United States in their exertions for liberty; and such other persons as have been admitted by the respective state-meetings.

Sect.

Sect. III. ‘ The ſociety ſhall have a preſident, vice-preſident, ſecretary, and aſſiſtant-ſecretary.

Sect. IV. ‘ There ſhall be a meeting of the ſociety, at leaſt once in three years, on the firſt Monday in May, at ſuch place as the preſident ſhall appoint.

‘ The ſaid meeting ſhall conſiſt of the aforeſaid officers (whoſe expences ſhall be equally borne by the ſtate funds) a repreſentation from each ſtate.

‘ The buſineſs of this general meeting ſhall be,—to regulate the diſtribution of ſurplus funds;—to appoint officers for the enſuing term,—and to conform the bye-laws of ſtate meetings to the general objects of the inſtitution.

Sect. V. ‘ The ſociety ſhall be divided into ſtate-meetings: each meeting ſhall have a preſident, vice-preſident, ſecretary and treaſurer, reſpectively to be choſen by a majority of votes annually.

Sect. VI. ‘ The ſtate-meetings ſhall be on the anniverſary of independence. They ſhall concert ſuch meaſures as may conduce to the benevolent purpoſes of the ſociety; and the ſeveral ſtate-meetings ſhall, at ſuitable periods, make application to their reſpective legiſlatures for grants of charters.

Sect. VII. ‘ Any member removing from one ſtate to another, is to be conſidered, in all reſpects, as belonging to the meeting of the ſtate in which he ſhall actually reſide.

Sect. VIII. ‘ The ſtate-meeting ſhall judge of the qualification of its members, admoniſh, and (if neceſſary) expel any one who may conduct himſelf unworthily.

Sect. IX. ‘ The ſecretary of each ſtate-meeting ſhall regiſter the names of the members reſident in each ſtate, and tranſmit a copy thereof to the ſecretary of the ſociety.

Sect. X. ‘ In order to form funds for the relief of unfortunate members, their widows and orphans, each officer ſhall deliver to the treaſurer of the ſtate-meeting, one month's pay.

Sect. XI. ‘ No donation ſhall be received but from the citizens of the United States.

Sect. XII. ‘ The funds of each ſtate-meeting ſhall be loaned to the ſtate, by permiſſion of the legiſlature, and the intereſt only, annually to be applied for the purpoſes of the ſociety; and if, in proceſs of time, difficulties ſhould occur in executing the intentions of this ſociety, the legiſlatures of the ſeveral ſtates ſhall be entitled to make ſuch equitable diſpoſition as may be moſt correſpondent with the original deſign of the conſtitution.

Sect. XIII. ‘ The ſubjects of his moſt Chriſtian majeſty, members of this ſociety, may hold meetings at their pleaſure, and form regulations for the police, conformable to the objects of the inſtitution, and to the ſpirit of their government.

Sect. XIV. ‘ The ſociety ſhall have an order; which ſhall be a bald eagle of gold, bearing on its breaſt the emblems deſcribed in the note, * ſuſpended

* ‘ *The principal figure to be* Cincinnatus, *three ſenators preſenting him with*

ſuſpended by a deep blue ribband edged with white, deſcriptive of the union of America and France.

The motives which originally induced the officers of the American army to form themſelves into a ſociety of friends, are ſummed up in a maſterly manner in their circular letter. 'Having,' ſay they, 'lived in the ſtricteſt habits of amity through the various ſtages of a war, unparalleled in many of its circumſtances, having ſeen the objects for which we have contended, happily attained; in the moment of triumph and ſeparation, when we were about to act the laſt pleaſing melancholy ſcene in our military drama—pleaſing, becauſe we were to leave our country poſſeſſed of independence and peace—melancholy, becauſe we were to part, perhaps never to meet again; while every breaſt was penetrated with feelings which can be more eaſily conceived than deſcribed; while every little act of tenderneſs recurred freſh to the recollection, it was impoſſible not to wiſh our friendſhips ſhould be continued; it was extremely natural to deſire they might be perpetuated by our poſterity to the remoteſt ages. With theſe impreſſions, and with ſuch ſentiments, we candidly confeſs we ſigned the inſtitution.—We know our motives were irreproachable.'

They reſt their inſtitution upon the two great pillars of FRIENDSHIP and CHARITY. Their benevolent intentions are, to diffuſe comfort and ſupport to any of their unfortunate companions who have ſeen better days, and merited a milder fate; to wipe the tear from the eye of the widow, who muſt have been conſigned, with her helpleſs infants, to indigence and wretchedneſs, but for this charitable inſtitution—to ſuccour the fatherleſs—to reſcue the female orphan from deſtruction, and to enable the ſon to emulate the virtues of the father. 'Let us then,' they conclude, 'proſecute with ardour what we have inſtituted in ſincerity; let Heaven and our own conſciences approve our conduct; let our actions be our beſt comment on our words; and let us leave a leſſon to poſterity, THAT THE GLORY OF SOLDIERS CANNOT BE COMPLETED WITHOUT ACTING WELL THE PART OF CITIZENS.'

Agriculture, Commerce and Manufactures.] The two important objects of attention in the United States, are agriculture and commerce. The richneſs of the ſoil, which amply rewards the induſtrious huſbandman; the temperature of the climate, which admits of ſteady labour; the cheapneſs of land, which tempts the foreigner from his native home, lead us to fix on agriculture as the great leading intereſt of this country. This furniſhes outward cargoes not only for all our own ſhips, but for thoſe alſo which foreign nations ſend to our ports; or in other words, it pays for all our importations; it ſupplies a great part of the clothing of the inhabitants, and food for them and their cattle. What is conſumed at

with a ſword and other military enſigns: On a field in the back ground his wife ſtanding at the door of their cottage; near it a plough and other inſtruments of huſbandry. Round the whole, omnia reliquit ſervare rempublicam. *On the reverſe, the ſun riſing, a city with open gates, and veſſels entering the port; ſame crowning* Cincinnatus *with a wreath, inſcribed,* virtutis præmium. *Below, hands joining, ſupporting a heart, with the motto,* eſto perpetua. *Round the whole,* Societas Cincinnatorum, inſtituta, A. D. 1783.

home, including the materials for manufacturing, is four or five times the value of what is exported.

The number of people employed in agriculture, is at leaſt nine parts in ten of the inhabitants of the United States. It follows of courſe that they form the body of the militia, who are the bulwark of the nation. The value of the property occupied by agriculture, is many times greater than the property employed in every other way. The ſettlement of waſte lands, the ſubdiviſion of farms, and the numerous improvements in huſbandry, annually increaſe the pre-eminence of the agricultural intereſt. The reſources we derive from it, are at all times certain and indiſpenſibly neceſſary. Beſides, the rural life promotes health, by its active nature, and morality, by keeping people from the luxuries and vices of the populous towns. In ſhort, agriculture is the ſpring of our commerce, and the parent of our manufactures.

The vaſt extent of ſea coaſt, which ſpreads before theſe confederated ſtates; the number of excellent harbours and ſea-port towns; the numerous creeks and immenſe bays, which indent the coaſt; and the rivers, lakes and canals, which peninſulate the whole country; added to its agricultural advantages and improvements, give this part of the world ſuperior advantages for trade. Our commerce, including our exports, imports, ſhipping, manufactures and fiſheries, may properly be conſidered as forming one intereſt. This has been conſidered as the great object, and the moſt important intereſt of the New England ſtates; but erroneouſly, for, according to the beſt calculations which have been made, the proportion of property, and the number of men employed in manufactures, fiſheries, navigation and trade, do not, even in this commercial part of the union, amount to one-eighth of the property and people occupied in agriculture. In this eſtimate ſuitable deductions are made from the value and population of the large towns, for the idle and diſſipated, for thoſe who live upon their incomes, and for ſupernumerary domeſtic ſervants. But taking the union at large, the diſproportion is much greater. The timber, iron, cordage, and many other articles neceſſary for building ſhips to fiſh or trade; nine parts in ten of their cargoes; the ſubſiſtence of the manufactures, and a great part of their raw materials, are the produce of our lands.

Since commerce has ever been conſidered as the handmaid of agriculture, particularly in this country, where the agricultural intereſt ſo greatly predominates; and ſince neither can flouriſh without the other, policy and intereſt point out the neceſſity of ſuch a ſyſtem of commercial and agricultural regulations, as will originate and effectually preſerve a proper connection and balance between them.

The conſumption of fiſh, oil, whale-bone and other articles, obtained through the fiſheries, in the towns and counties that are convenient to navigation, has become much greater than is generally ſuppoſed. It is computed that no leſs than five thouſand barrels of mackarel, ſalmon, and pickled codfiſh, are vended annually in the city of Philadelphia: Add to them the dried fiſh, oil, ſpermaceti candles, whale-bone, &c. and it will be found that a little fleet of ſloops and ſchooners are employed in the buſineſs. The number of coaſting veſſels entered at the cuſtom-houſe of Philadelphia in the year 1785, was five hundred and ſixty-ſeven; all the other

other entries of ſea veſſels in the ſame year were five hundred and one. The demand for the forementioned articles is proportionably great in other parts of the union, (eſpecially in Boſton and the large commercial towns that lie along the coaſt north-eaſtward, which enter largely into the fiſhing trade, and the veſſels employed in tranſporting them proportionably numerous. Theſe increaſe of our towns and manufactures will increaſe the demand for theſe articles, and of courſe the number of coaſting veſſels. In the preſent ſtate of our navigation, we can be in no doubt of procuring the ſupplies by means of our own veſſels. This will afford encouragement to the buſineſs of ſhip-building, and encreaſe the number of our ſeamen, who muſt hereafter form an important part of the defence of our country. Add to theſe our proſpects from the fur trade of Canada. The vaſt ſettlements which are making at Pittſburg and in other parts in the neighbourhood of Canada; the advantages of our inland navigation, by means of the lakes, the northern branches of the Ohio, the Patomak, the Suſquehannah, and the Hudſon, with many other circumſtances, depending not only on the ſituation but likewiſe on the climate, proximity, &c. muſt in a few years put a large ſhare of this fur trade into our hands, and procure us at leaſt, our proportionable ſhare of the large profits thence ariſing, which Canada, ſince the year 1763, has enjoyed almoſt excluſively. Theſe advantages, however, are ſtill but in proſpect; and muſt remain ſo until the Britiſh agreeably to treatry, ſhall have evacuated the forts of Niagara, the large ſettlements of the Heights, and that of Michillimakinak. Although the Britiſh, by the treaty of peace, are to enjoy with us the portages of the navigation of the lakes, yet ſhould a diſpute ariſe, it will not be convenient for them to contend with us: for the northern and north-eaſtern parts of the continent included in the Britiſh limits, are much colder, more mountainous, and poorer than the United States; and have no rivers, but ſuch as are full of rapids and falls; conſequently, this trade cannot be carried on by the Canadians with the ſame facility nor advantage as by us. Still they will have left the excluſive right to the cummunication from Montreal with the high-lands, through the large river of the Owtawas which flows into the river St. Lawrence at the lake of the two mountains, nine miles from that city; but its rapids, or rather its furies, and everlaſting falls, will render this way, if not impracticable, at leaſt always very expenſive and precarious.

The quantity of fur exported from the northern parts of America to Great-Britain, have amounted yearly to about forty-one thouſand pounds ſterling, eſtimated from the freight during the year 1768, 1769 and 1770. The export of buck-ſkins amounted to upwards of thirty-three thouſand pounds. The ſales of fur, which take place in London every ſpring, produced, in 1782, four thouſand ſeven hundred pounds. It was a little increaſed in 1783, and in 1784 it exceeded two hundred and forty-five thouſand pounds. All this fur is paid for by Engliſh manufactures; and a fourth part of it is worked in England, where its worth is doubled. This valuable trade, which is carried on through Quebec, muſt unavoidably fall into our hands, as ſoon as the fortifications which the Britiſh ſtill poſſeſs in our northern territories ſhall be reſtored to us. To this conſideration, rather than to the pretended compaſſion for the Royaliſt, may

be attributed the delay of that reſtitution. The period when this reſtitution *muſt* be made, the Britiſh anticipate with ſorrow. Such are ſome of the commercial reſources and proſpects of this country.

But for various reaſons, the advantages for trade which nature has ſo liberally given us, have never yet been properly improved. Before the revolution, Great-Britain claimed an excluſive right to the trade of her American colonies. This right, which ſhe inflexibly maintained, enabled her to fix her own price, as well on the articles which ſhe purchaſed from us, as upon thoſe of her own manufactures exported for our conſumption. The carrying trade too, was preſerved almoſt excluſively in her own hands. which afforded a temptation to the carriers, that was often too powerful to be withſtood, to exact exhorbitant commiſſions and freights. Although we will not even hazard a conjecture how much Great-Britain enriched herſelf by this excluſive trade with her colonies, yet this we may ſay, that by denying us the priviledge of carrying our produce to foreign markets, ſhe deprived us of the opportunity of realizing, in their full extent, the advantages for trade which nature has given us.

The late war, which brought about our ſeparation from Great-Britain, threw our commercial affairs into great confuſion. The powers of our national government have hitherto been unequal to the complete execution of any meaſures, calculated effectually to recover them from their deranged ſituation. Through want of power in Congreſs to collect a revenue for the diſcharge of our foreign and domeſtic debt, our credit is deſtroyed, and trade of conſequence greatly embarraſſed. Each ſtate, hitherto, in her deſultory regulations of trade, has regarded her own intereſt, while that of the union has been neglected. And ſo different are the intereſts of the ſeveral ſtates, that their laws reſpecting trade, have often claſhed with each other, and been productive of unhappy conſequences. The large commercial ſtates have had it in their power to oppreſs their neighbours; and in ſome inſtances this power has been directly or indirectly exerciſed. Theſe impolitic and unjuſtifiable regulations, formed on the impreſſion of the moment, and proceeding from no uniform or permanent principles, have excited unhappy jealouſies between the claſhing ſtates, and occaſioned frequent ſtagnations in their trade, and in ſome inſtances, a ſecrecy in their commercial policy. This laſt mentioned circumſtance together with the inconveniencies in ſome ſtates, want of proper regulations in others, and impoſſibility in the reſt of preſerving compleat accounts of their annual exports and imports, render it impoſſible, at preſent, to give ſuch an accurate ſtatement of the trade of the United States, as to determine on which ſide the balance lies; whether for or againſt us.

The Britiſh parliament, too well acquainted with our deranged and defenceleſs ſituation, have improved the favourable juncture to ſhackle our trade with every poſſible embarraſſment. In their late act for regulating the trade between the United States and the Weſt India Iſlands, they have enacted, 'That no goods or commodities whatever ſhall be imported or brought from any of the territories of the ſaid United States of America, into any of his Majeſty's Weſt-India Iſlands, (in which deſcription the Bahama Iſlands, and the Bermuda, or Somer's Iſlands, are included) under penalty of the forfeiture thereof, and alſo of the ſhip or veſſel, in which the

the ſame ſhall be ſo imported or brought, together with all her guns, furniture, ammunition, tackle and apparel, except tobacco, pitch, tar, turpentine, hemp, flax, maſts, yards, bowſprits, ſtaves, heading, boards, timber, ſhingles, and lumber of any ſort; horſes, neat cattle, ſheep, hogs, poultry and live ſtock of any ſort; bread, biſcuit, flour, beans, peas, potatoes, wheat, rice, oats, barley, and grain of any ſort; ſuch commodities reſpectively being the growth or production of any of the territories of the ſaid United States of America.'

None of theſe commodities enumerated, according to the act, are to be imported into any of the ſaid iſlands from the United States, under the like forfeiture as above-mentioned, 'except by Britiſh ſubjects, in Britiſh built ſhips, owned by his majeſty's ſubjects, and navigated according to law.'

All ſuch goods or commodities, as are not by law prohibited to be exported to any foreign country, may by virtue of this act, be exported from the Weſt-India Iſlands, in Britiſh veſſels only, to any part of the United States. Salt from Turks Iſland is the only exception. This article may be brought away by American veſſels going in ballaſt, not otherwiſe, on paying a tonnage duty of two ſhillings and ſix-pence ſterling for every ton.

This act alſo prohibits the importation of any of the forementioned articles, ſuch as tobacco, pitch, tar, &c. into any iſland, under the dominion of his majeſty, in the Weſt-Indies, from any iſland in the Weſt-Indies, under the dominion of any foreign European ſovereign, or ſtate, upon the penalty of the forfeiture of the veſſel and cargo; except in caſes of public emergency and diſtreſs.

The trade of the United States, carried on with the provinces of Nova-Scotia, New-Brunſwick, the Iſlands of Cape-Breton, St. John's, Newfoundland, and the province of Quebec, is ſubject to the forementioned regulations and reſtrictions. In regard to the province of Quebec, however, it muſt be here obſerved, that Lord Dorcheſter, in an ordinance iſſued April 17, 1788, has enacted, 'That all goods, wares, and merchandiſes (beaver peltries and furs excepted) of the growth and manufacture or product of this province, or of any other the dominions of Great-Britain, and ſuch as may lawfully be imported into this province by ſea, may be exported therefrom by land or inland navigation, to any of the neighbouring ſtates, free from duty, impoſt or reſtraint. And there ſhall be the like freedom of importation from the ſaid ſtates into this province, if the ſame be made by the route, or communication of Lake Champlain and the river Sorel or Richelieu, and not otherwiſe, of the following enumerated articles, that is to ſay, maſts, yards, bowſprits ſpars, plank, boards, knees, futtocks, or any kind of ſhip-timber; hoops, ſtaves, ſhingles, clapboards, trees, wood, lumber, pitch, tar, turpentine, tallow, hemp, flax, and any kind of naval ſtores; ſeeds, wheat, rye, Indian corn, beans, peas, potatoes, rice, oats, barley, and all other grains; butter, cheeſe, honey, horſes, neat cattle, ſheep, hogs, poultry, and other live ſtock, and live proviſions, and freſh fiſh; and whatſoever is of the growth of the ſaid ſtates; and gold or ſilver coin or bullion.'

In this ordinance it is further enacted, 'That the importation by land or by inland navigation into this province, of rum, ſpirits, copper, coin,

and all other goods, wares and merchandiſes not enumerated, be prohibited, and ſuch articles ſeized and forfeited, together with every of the above enumerated articles, if the ſame ſhall not have been imported by the route or communication aforeſaid.'

As a further embarraſſment of our trade, Great-Britain, in direct violation of the treaty of 1783, in which it was agreed, 'That his Britanic Majeſty ſhall, with all convenient ſpeed, withdraw all his armies, garriſons and fleets, from the United States, and from every poſt, place and harbour within the ſame,' ſtill retains our northern poſts, and thereby effectually deprives us of the large profits ariſing from the fur trade.

This view of the preſent embarraſſed ſtate of our internal and foreign trade, points out the abſolute need we have of a government, inveſted with powers adequate to the formation and execution of ſuch a ſyſtem of commercial regulations as will enable us to meet the oppoſers of our trade upon their own ground; a ſyſtem which will render us reſpectable at home and a broad; which will place our commerce upon a uniform and intelligible footing, and promote the general intereſts of the union, with the ſmalleſt injury to the intereſts of individual ſtates. Such a ſyſtem may be hoped for, and rationally expected as one happy conſequence of the newly eſtabliſhed Fœderal Government.

Our good and faithful allies and friends, the French, have been more liberal in their policy. In the arret, paſſed in council December 29, 1787, for encouraging the commerce of France with the United States of America, it is ordained, That whale oil and ſpermaceti, the produce of the fiſheries of the United States, brought directly into France in French or American bottoms, ſhall be ſubject to a duty only of ſeven livres ten ſols (equal to ſix ſhillings and three-pence ſterling,) the barrel of five hundred and twenty weight; and whale fins ſhall be ſubject to a duty of only ſix livres thirteen ſols and four deniers (equal to five ſhillings and ſix-pence half-penny, the quintal, with ten ſols per livre on each of the ſaid duties; which ten ſols per livre ſhall ceaſe on the laſt day of December, 1790.

The other fiſh oils and dry ſalted fiſh produced and imported as aforeſaid, are not liable to pay any other or greater duties, than the moſt favoured nations are or ſhall be ſubject to in the ſame caſe.

Corn, wheat, rye, rice, peas beans, lentils, flax-ſeed and other ſeeds, flour, trees and ſhrubs, pot and pearl-aſhes, ſkins, and fur of beaver, raw hides furs and peltry, and timber carried from the United States to France in French or American bottoms are ſubject to a duty of one eight per cent on their value. Veſſels, proved to have been built in the United States, and ſold in France, or purchaſed by Frenchmen, are exempted from duties. Turpentine, tar and pitch, are liable to a duty of two and a half per cent. on their value. Arms may be imported into the United States, in French or American veſſels, on paying a duty of one eight per cent on their value; and gunpowder duty free, by giving a cautionary bond. Books and papers of all ſorts imported as aforeſaid, are to be exempted from all duties, and entitled to a reſtitution of the fabrication duties on paper and paſte-board. Permiſſion is given to ſtore all productions and merchandiſe of the United States, for ſix months, in all the ports of France open to the commerce of her colonies, ſubject to a duty only of one

one-eighth per cent. His majeſty reſerves to himſelf the power of granting encouragement to favor the exportation of arms, hard-ware, jewellery, bonnetry, wool, cotton, coarſe woollens, ſmall draperies and ſtuffs of cotton of all ſorts, and other merchandize of French fabric, which may be ſent to the United States.

As to the other merchandizes not enumerated in this act, imported and exported in French or American veſſels, and with reſpect to all commercial conventions whatever, his majeſty, ordains, 'That the citizens of the United States enjoy in France, the ſame rights, privileges and exemptions, with the ſubjects of his majeſty; ſaving what is provided in the ninth article hereof *.

'His majeſty grants to the citizens and inhabitants of the United States all the advantages which are enjoyed, or which may be hereafter enjoyed by the moſt favoured nations in his colonies of America: and moreover his majeſty enſures to the ſaid citizens and inhabitants of the United States all the privileges and advantages which his own ſubjects of France enjoy or ſhall enjoy in Aſia, and in the ſcales leading thereto, provided always, that their veſſels ſhall have been fitted out and diſpatched in ſome port of the United States.'

Such is the ſtate of our commerce with France; on which I would only obſerve, that the advantages which might naturally be expected to flow to the United States from their liberal privileges granted in the above-mentioned act, are greatly leſſened, in conſequence of the ſame privileges having been granted to all foreigners.

In reviewing our agricultural and commercial advantages, thoſe of manufactures muſt not be overlooked. Though it is confeſſed, that the United States have full employment for all their citizens in the extenſive field of agriculture, yet ſince we have a valuable body of manufacturers already here, and many more will probably emigrate from Europe to enjoy the bleſſings of life, in this land of civil and religious liberty; and ſince we have ſome poor citizens who are unable to make ſettlements on our waſte lands, good policy, no doubt, will encourage theſe men to improve the great *natural powers* which this country poſſeſſes, for carrying on the manufacturing buſineſs.

Theſe are the people to be employed in managing thoſe factories which can be carried on by water-mills, wind-mills, fire, horſes, and ingeniouſly contrived machines; which, as they require but few hands, do not divert

* *The article referred to ordains, that 'The admiralty duties on the veſſels of the United States entering into, or going out of the ports of France, ſhall not be levied but conformably with the edict of the month of June laſt, in the caſes therein provided for, and with the letters patent of the tenth of January,* 1770, *for the objects for which no proviſion ſhall have been made by the ſaid edict: his majeſty reſerving to himſelf moreover, to make known his intentions as to the manner in which ſaid duties ſhall be levied, whether in proportion to the tonnage of the veſſels, or otherwiſe, as alſo to ſimplify the ſaid duties of the admiralty, and to regulate them as far as ſhall be poſſible on the principles of reciprocity, as ſoon as the orders ſhall be completed, which were given by his majeſty, according to the twenty-ſixth article of the ſaid act of the month of June laſt.'*

people

people from agriculture, and are not burdened with any heavy expence of boarding, loding, cloathing, and paying workmen. By wind and water machines we can make pig and bar iron, hallow ware and cannon ſhot, nail rods, tire, ſheet-iron, ſheet-copper, ſheet-braſs and ſheet-lead, anchors, meal of all kinds, gun-powder, writing, printing, and hanging paper, ſnuff, linſeed oil, boards, plank, and ſcantling; and they aſſiſt us in fiſhing ſcythes, ſickles, and woollen cloths. In the European factories, they alſo card, ſpin, and weave by water. By means of water likewiſe, our bleaching and tanning buſineſs are carried on.

Breweries, which we cannot eſtimate too highly, diſtilleries, ſalt and pot-aſh works, ſugar-houſes, potteries, caſting and ſteel furnaces, works for animal and vegetable oils, and refining drugs, ſteam engines, and ſeveral other works, are, or may be carried on by means of that powerful and uſeful element fire, and be attended with the ſame ſavings, that were particularlized in ſpeaking of water machines.

Horſes grind the tanners bark, and potters clay; they work the brewers and diſtillers pumps; and, by an inventive mind, might be applied as the moving principle of many kinds of mills.

Machines ingeniouſly conſtructed will give us immenſe aſſiſtance. The cotton and ſilk manufacturers in Europe are poſſeſſed of ſome, that are invaluable to them. One inſtance has been preciſely aſcertained, which employs a few hundreds of women and children, and performs the work of TWELVE THOUSAND of carders, ſpinners, and winders. They have been ſo curiouſly improved of late years, as to weave the moſt complicated manufactures. We may certainly borrow ſome of their inventions, and may ſtrike out others of the ſame nature ourſelves; for on the ſubject of mechanics, America may juſtly pride herſelf.

A very uſeful machine has lately been invented and made in Connecticut *, for the purpoſe of cutting and bending wire for card teeth; which will make thirty-ſix thouſand in an hour. By a ſmall improvement it may be made to cut double that number with equal eaſe. With this machine, in its preſent form, a man, though blind, with a boy to tend the wire, might eaſily cut an hundred pounds of wire in a day. Conſequently, with the propoſed improvemens, they might cut two hundred pounds. The inventor of this, has ſeveral other uſeful manufacting machines partly completed.

In ſhort, every combination of machinery may be expected from a country, a NATIVE SON † of which, reaching this ineſtimable object in its higheſt point, has epitomiſed the motions of the ſpheres that roll throughout the univerſe.

The advantages which nature has given us for theſe manufactured improvements have not been neglected; but in ſome ſtates, particularly in Pennſylvania, New-Jerſey, Connecticut, and Maſſachuſetts, have been lately much improved. Still our manufactures will admit of being further puſhed without interfering with the general intereſts of commerce

* *By Mr. Ebenezer Chittendon, of New Haven, an obſcure mechanic, whoſe ingenuity and originality of genius entitle him to public notice and encouragement.*

† *David Rittenhouſe, Eſq; of Pennſylvania.*

or

or agriculture; provided they are judiciouſly apportioned to, and encouraged in thoſe ſtates, which from nature, population, and their internal reſources, are beſt fitted to purſue them to advantage. In Georgia, South Carolina, North Carolina, Virginia and Maryland, where the people, conſidering the extenſive territory which they inhabit, are comparatively few, tillage profitable, and proviſions dear, muſt manufacture to an evident loſs; while the advancement of this buſineſs in moſt of the northern ſtates, which are full of inhabitants, and where proviſions are cheap, and land dear, will afford the means of ſubſiſtence to many good citizens, whoſe occupations have been rendered unprofitable by the conſequences of the revolution. In the former, full ſcope may be given to agriculture, leaving the benefits of manufacturing (ſo far as they are within our reach) to the latter. The produce of the ſouthern ſtates might be exchanged for ſuch manufactures as can be made by the northern, to mutual advantage.

Some of our manufactories too, are made highly ſubſervient to the intereſt of agriculture. The workers in leather of every kind, in flax and hemp, in iron, wood, ſtone and clay, in furs, horn, and many other articles, employ either the ſpontaneous productions of the earth or the fruits of cultivation. Malt liquors too, if generally uſed, and it is a happy circumſtance that they are becoming faſhionable, linſeed oil, ſtarch, and corn ſpirits, were they not a poiſon to our morals and conſtitutions, would require more grain to make them than has been exported in any year ſince the revolution. And as the grapes are the ſpontaneous production of all the United States, and by culture might be raiſed in any quantities, and in great perfection, particularly in the ſouthern ſtates, we may not omit to anticipate the time as not far diſtant, when we ſhall have it in our power to make wines of ſuch quality, and in ſuch quantities, as to preclude all foreign importations. I cannot omit to obſerve here the impolicy, and I may add, immorality of importing and conſuming ſuch amazing quantities of ſpirituous liquors. They impair the eſtates, debilitate the bodies, and occaſion the ruin of the morals of thouſands of the citizens of America. They kill more people than any one diſeaſe, perhaps than all diſeaſes beſides. It cannot be then but that they are ruinous to our country.

It appears from the beſt calculations that can be obtained, that in the courſe of the years 1785, 1786, and 1787, TWELVE MILLIONS of dollars were expended by the United States, in purchaſing Weſt India ſpiritous liquors; and perhaps nearly half that ſum for ſpirits diſtilled at home.

The expenditure of this immenſe ſum, a ſum which would well nigh cancel our whole national debt, ſo far from benefiting us, has entailed diſeaſes, idleneſs, poverty, wretchedneſs and debt on thouſands, who might otherwiſe have been healthy, independant in their circumſtances, and happy.

Experience has proved that ſpiritous liquors, except for certain medicinal uſes, are altogether unneceſſary. In the moderate uſe of wine, which is a generous and chearing liquor, and may be plentifully produced in our own country; of beer, which ſtrengthens the arm of the labourer without debauching him; of cider, which is wholeſome and palatable; and of molaſſes and water, which has become a faſhionable drink, in the

uſe

uſe of theſe liquors, labourers, and other people who have made the experiment, have been found to enjoy more health and better ſpirits than thoſe who have made only a moderate uſe of ſpiritous liquors. The reaſon of this is made obvious by a careful calculation lately made, from which it appears that malt liquors, and ſeveral of the imported wines, are much more nouriſhing and cheaper than ſpirits. In a pint of beer, or half a pint of Malaga or Teneriffe wine, there is more ſtrength than in a quart of rum. The beer and the wine abound with nouriſhment, whereas the rum has no more nouriſhment in it than a pound of air. Theſe conſiderations point out the utility, may I not add, the neceſſity of confining ourſelves to the uſe of our own home made liquors, that in this way we might encourage our own manufactures, promote induſtry, preſerve the morals and lives of our citizens, and ſave our country from the enormous annual expence of four millions of dollars.

Another encouragement to promote regular factories of many kinds in ſuitable parts of the union, ariſes from the heavy charges of bringing European goods into our markets. The merchants commiſſions for ſhipping, and the ſame for ſelling, coſt of packages, cuſtom-houſe papers in Europe, and the ſame with a duty of five per cent. here, porterages, freight, inſurance, damage, intereſt of money, waſte and loſs on exchange; theſe may be rated at twenty-five per cent. on the fineſt and leaſt bulky of our manufactures. This twenty-five per cent. which would be much greater on articles of a more bulky and weighty kind, is a ſolid premium, operating like a bounty to our manufacturers to encourage their buſineſs. This ſubſtantial advantage over European manufacturers they always muſt have, ſo long as the broad Atlantic divides us.

Theſe are ſome of our numerous internal reſources and advantages for the encouragement of factories in thoſe parts of the union where they can be attended to in perfect conſiſtency with the higheſt intereſts of commerce and agriculture.

After having indulged in the enumeration of ſome of our manufactural advantages and proſpects, which I am ſenſible is deviating from the common track of Geographers, whoſe buſineſs it is to relate things as they are, and not to anticipate what they might be, we will now proceed to take a general view of the preſent ſtate of our manufactures.

Of the long liſt of articles which we now make ourſelves, we will mention, meal of all kinds, ſhips and boats, malt and diſtilled liquors, potaſh, gunpowder, cordage, loaf-ſugar, paſteboard, cards and paper of every kind, books in various languages, ſnuff, tobacco, ſtarch, cannon, muſquets, anchors, nails, and very many other articles of iron, bricks, tiles, potters ware, mill-ſtones, and other ſtone work, cabinet work, trunks and Windſor chairs, carriages and harneſs of all kinds, corn-fans, ploughs and many other implements of huſbandry, ſadlery and whips, ſhoes and boots, leather of various kinds, hoſiery, hats and gloves, wearing apparel, coarſe linens, and woollens, and ſome cotton goods, linſeed and fiſh oil, wares of gold, ſilver, tin, pewter, lead, braſs and copper, bells, clocks and watches, wool and cotton cards, printing types, glaſs and ſtone ware, candles, ſoap and ſeveral other valuable articles. Theſe are tending to greater perfection, and will ſoon be ſold ſo cheap as to throw foreign goods of the ſame kind entirely out of the market.

Pennſylvania

Penſylvania has confeſſedly taken the lead of all her ſiſter ſtates in manufactural improvements. A ſociety for the encouragement of manufactures and the uſeful arts, was inſtituted at Philadelphia in the ſummer of 1787. Several ingenious, well written pamphlets were publiſhed at the time, repreſenting our numerous reſources and advantages for promoting manufactures, and pointing out the principles upon which they ought to be eſtabliſhed *. Theſe publications had a ſalutary effect; and have no doubt had their due ſhare of influence in cheriſhing that ſpirit of induſtry and attention to home manufactures, which of late has greatly prevailed in the eaſtern and middle ſtates.

A cotton manufactory has lately been eſtabliſhed at Philadelphia, at which are made jeans, fuſtians, velvets, velverets and corduroys, equal in goodneſs to thoſe imported, and much cheaper. Cotton enough might be raiſed in the ſouthern ſtates, and manufactured in the northern, to clothe all their citizens. A flouriſhing woolen manufactory has lately been eſtabliſhed at Hertford in Connecticut, with a capital of four thouſand dollars, which is increaſing. It is computed that in Eaſt Jerſey, more than eight times the quantity of linen and woollen cloth has been manufactured the preſent year, than in any one year ſince the peace. In ſeveral other ſtates the increaſe has been equally great.

New England, the ſeat of the fiſheries, has the great advantage of being the cheapeſt and moſt populous part of America. Its inhabitants are healthy, active and intelligent, and can be frugal; and have produced their ſhare of mechanical inventions. Theſe circumſtances render it probable that factories of various kinds, which are now numerous and flouriſhing, will ſoon be greatly encreaſed in this part of the union.

An extravagant and waſteful uſe of foreign manufactures, has been too juſt a charge againſt the people of America, ſince the cloſe of the war. They have been ſo cheap, ſo plenty, and ſo eaſily obtained on credit, that the conſumption of them has been abſolutely wanton. To ſuch an exceſs has it been carried, that the importation of the finer kind of coat, veſt and ſleeve buttons, buckles, broaches, breaſt pins, and other trinkets into the port of Philadelphia only, is ſuppoſed to have amounted in a ſingle year to ten thouſand pounds ſterling; which coſt the wearers above ſixty thouſand dollars. A proportionable quantity of theſe expenſive and ſhewy trinkets, it is preſumed, have been imported into the other ſtates. Our farmers, in moſt parts of the union, to their great honour and advantage, have been long in the excellent œconomical practice of domeſtic manufactures of their own uſe. It is chiefly in large towns that this madneſs for foreign finery rages and deſtroys. There, unfortunately, it has been and is ſtill epidemical.

Theſe general obſervations on the agriculture, commerce and manufactures of the union at large, are introductory to a more particular account of them in the deſcriptions of the ſeveral ſtates.

* *Two of theſe Pamphlets were written by Tench Coxe, Eſq; of Philadelphia. It is wiſhed they could be read by every citizen of the United States. To extend the influence of the valuable information, and patriotic ſentiments which they contain, I have made a very free uſe of them in the foregoing obſervations, on the ſubjects of which they treat.*

Military

Military and Marine ſtrength.] On theſe two heads, as we have no accurate eſtimate of the number of inhabitants in ſome of the ſtates, and no official returns of the militia; and as we have in fact no marine ſtrength, we are left to the field of conjecture and anticipation. The following eſtimate may ſerve until a better one can be made. Suppoſe the number of inhabitants in the United States to be three millions, eighty-three thouſand. Deduct from this five hundred and ſixty thouſand, the ſuppoſed number of negroes; the remainder will be two millions, five hundred and twenty-three thouſand, the number of whites. Suppoſe one ſixth part of theſe capable of bearing arms, it will be found that the number of fencible men in the United States are four hundred and twenty thouſand. This, it is conceived, is but a moderate eſtimate. In Virginia, according to Mr. Jefferſon's calculation, the number of whites is two hundred and nine-ſix thouſand, eight hundred and fifty-two; and the militia forty-nine thouſand nine hundred and ſeventy-one, which is very nearly one ſixth part. In Connecticut there are thirty-nine thouſand three hundred and eighty-eight males between ſixteen and fifty years of age, who are ſuppoſed capable of bearing arms; and the whole number of whites is two hundred and two thouſand eight hundred and ſeventy-ſeven; the proportion of fighting men therefore is about one in five. In Rhode Iſland, Maſſachuſetts and new Hampſhires the proportion is about the ſame. In Vermont, Kentucky, the Weſtern territory and Georgia, which have been newly ſettled by a young and thrifty race of huſbandmen from the older ſtates, there is, without doubt, a much greater proportion of ſoldiers. So that in eſtimating our military ſtrength, we may ſafely venture to reckon upon four hundred and twenty thouſand men. A great proportion of theſe are well diſciplined, veteran ſoldiers, whoſe bravery and expertneſs in war have been tried and honourably approved. And Europe will acknowledge, that no part of the world can bring into the field an army, of equal numbers, more formidable than can be raiſed in the United States.

As to marine ſtrength we have none. All then that can be ſaid on this ſubject muſt be by way of anticipation. I mentioned marine ſtrength, only that I might have opportunity of introducing the excellent obſervation of Mr. Jefferſon on this head. After having eſtimated the pecuniary abilities of Virgini, and finding that it could, without diſtreſs, contribute one million of dollars annually towards ſupporting a federal army, paying the federal debt, building a federal navy, &c. &c. he proceeds to make an application of theſe abilities, if, unhappily, we ſhould come hereafter to meaſure force with any European power.

'Such an event,' he obſerves, 'is devoutly to be deprecated. Young as we are, and with ſuch a country before us to fill with people and with happineſs, we ſhould point in that direction the whole generative force of nature, waſting none of it in efforts of mutual deſtruction. It ſhould be our endeavour to cultivate the peace and friendſhip of every nation, even of that which has injured us moſt, when we ſhall have carried our point againſt her. Our intereſt will be to throw open the doors of commerce and to knock off all its ſhackles, giving perfect freedom to all perſons for the event of whatever they may chooſe to bring into our ports, and aſking the ſame in theirs. Never was ſo much falſe arithmetic employed on any ſubject

ſubject, as that which has been employed to perſuade nations that it is their intereſt to go to war. Were the money which it has coſt to gain, at the cloſe of a long war, a little town, or a little territory, the right to cut wood here, or to catch fiſh there, expended in improving what they already poſſeſs, in making roads, opening rivers, building ports, improving the arts, and finding employment for their idle poor, it would render them much ſtronger, much wealthier and happier. This I hope will be our wiſdom. And, perhaps, to remove as much as poſſible the occaſions of making war, it might be better for us to abandon the ocean altogether, that being the element whereon we ſhall be principally expoſed to joſtle with other nations: to leave to others to bring what we ſhall want, and to carry what we can ſpare. This would make us invulnerable to Europe, by offering none of our property to their prize, and would turn all our citizens to the cultivation of the earth; and, I repeat it again, cultivators of the earth are the moſt virtuous and independent citizens. It might be time enough to ſeek employment for them at ſea, when the land no longer offers it. But the actual habits of our countrymen attach them to commerce. They will exerciſe it for themſelves. Wars then muſt ſometimes be our lot; and all the wiſe can do, will be to avoid that half of them which would be produced by our own follies, and our acts of injuſtice; and to make for the other half the beſt preparations we can. Of what nature ſhould theſe be? A land army would be uſeleſs for offence, and not the beſt or ſafeſt inſtrument of defence. For either of theſe purpoſes, the ſea is the field on which we ſhould meet an European enemy. On what element it is neceſſary we ſhould poſſeſs ſome power. To aim at ſuch a navy as the greater nations of Europe poſſeſs, would be a fooliſh and wicked waſte of the energies of our countrymen. It would be to pull on our own heads that load of military expence, which makes the European labourer go ſupperleſs to bed, and moiſtens his bread with the ſweat of his brows. It will be enough if we enable ourſelves to prevent inſults from thoſe nations of Europe which are weak on the ſea, becauſe circumſtances exiſt, which render even the ſtronger ones weak as to us. Providence has placed their richeſt and moſt defenceleſs poſſeſſions at our door; has obliged their moſt precious commerce to paſs as it were in review before us. To protect this, or to aſſail us, a ſmall part only of their naval force will ever be aſked acroſs the Atlantic. The dangers to which the elements expoſe them here are too well known, and the greater dangers to which they would be expoſed at home, were any general calamity to involve their whole fleet. They can attack us by detachment only; and it will ſuffice to make ourſelves equal to what they may detach. Even a ſmaller force than they may detach will be rendered equal or ſuperior by the quickneſs with which any check may be repaired with us, while loſſes with them will be irreparable till too late. A ſmall naval force then is ſufficient for us, and a ſmall one is neceſſary. What this ſhould be, I will not undertake to ſay. I will only ſay, it ſhould by no means be ſo great as we are able to make it. Suppoſe the million of dollars, or three hundred thouſand pounds, which Virginia could annually ſpare without diſtreſs, to be applied to the creating a navy. A ſingle year's contribution would build, equip, man, and ſend to ſea a force which ſhould carry three hundred guns. The reſt of the confederacy, exerting themſelves in the ſame proportion,

portion would equip in the ſame time fifteen hundred guns more. So th
one year's contributions would ſet up a navy of eighteen hundred gu
The Britiſh ſhips of the line average ſeventy-ſix guns; their frigates thirt
eight. Eighteen hundred guns then would form a fleet of thirty ſhi
eighteen of which might be of the line, and twelve frigates. Allowi
eight men, the Britiſh average for every gun, their annual expence, i
cluding ſubſiſtence, cloathing, pay, and ordinary repairs, would be abo
twelve hundred and eighty dollars foe the whole. I ſtate this only as o
year's poſſible exertion, without deciding whether more or leſs than
year's exertion ſhould be thus applied.

Hiſtory.] In addition to what we have already written of the diſcove
and ſettlement of North-America, we ſhall give a brief hiſtory of the la
war with Great-Britain, with a ſketch of the events which preceeded a
prepared the way for the revolution. This general view of the hiſtory
the United States will ſerve as a ſuitable introduction to the particu
hiſtories of the ſeveral ſtates, which will be given in their proper places.

America was originally peopled by uncivilized nations, which liv
moſtly by hunting and fiſhing. The Europeans, who firſt viſited the
ſhores, treating the natives as wild beaſts of the foreſt, which have no pr
perty in the woods where they roam, planted the ſtandard of their reſpe
tive maſters where they firſt landed, and in their names claimed the cou
try by *right of diſcovery* *. Prior to any ſettlement in North America nu
merous titles of this kind were acquired by the Engliſh, French, Spaniſh
and Dutch navigators, who came hither for the purpoſes of fiſhing a
trading with the natives. Slight as ſuch titles were, they were afterwar
the cauſes of contention between the European nations. The ſubjects
different princes often laid claim to the ſame tract of country, becau
both had diſcovered the ſame river or promontory; or becauſe the exte
of their reſpective claims was indeterminate.

While the ſettlements in this vaſt uncultivated country were inconſide
ble and ſcattered, and the trade of it confined to the bartering of a fe
trinkets for furs, a trade carried on by a few adventurers, the interferi
of claims produced no important controverſy among the ſettlers, or t
nations of Europe. But in proportion to the progreſs of population, a
the growth of the American trade, the jealouſies of the nations, whi
had made early diſcoveries and ſettlements on this coaſt, were alarme
ancient claims were revived, and each power took meaſures to extend a
ſecure its own poſſeſſions at the expence of a rival.

By the treaty of Utrecht in 1713, the Engliſh claimed a right of cutti
log-wood in the Bay of Campeachy, in South America. In the exerc
of this right, the Engliſh merchants had frequent opportunities of carryi
on a contraband trade with the Spaniſh ſettlements on the continent.
remedy this evil, the Spaniards reſolved to annihilate a claim, whi

* *As well may the New Zealanders, who have not yet diſcovered Euro
fit out a ſhip, land on the coaſt of England or France, and, finding no inha
tants but poor fiſhermen and peaſants, claim the whole country by* right of d
covery.

thou

though often acknowledged, had never been clearly aſcertained. To effect this deſign, they captured the Engliſh veſſels, which they found along the Spaniſh Main, and many of the Britiſh ſubjects were doomed to work in the mines of Potoſi.

Repeated ſeverities of this kind at length (1739) produced a war between England and Spain. Porto Bello was taken from the Spaniards by Admiral Vernon. Commodore Anſon, with a ſquadron of ſhips, ſailed to the South Seas, diſtreſſed the Spaniſh ſettlements on the weſtern ſhore of America, and took a Galleon, laden with immenſe riches. But in 1741 a formidable armament, deſtined to attack Carthagena, under the command of Lord Carthcart, returned unſucceſsful, with the loſs of upwards of twelve thouſand Britiſh ſoldiers and ſeamen, and the defeat of the expedition, raiſed clamour againſt the miniſter, Sir Robert Walpole, which produced a change in the adminiſtration. This change removed the ſcene of war to Europe, ſo that America was not immediately affected by the ſubſequent tranſactions; except that Louiſburgh, the principle fortreſs of Cape Breton, was taken from the French by General Peperell, aſſiſted by Commodore Warren and a body of New-England troops.

This war was ended in 1784 by the treaty of peace ſigned at Aix la Chapelle, by which reſtitution was made on both ſides of all places taken during the war.

Peace, however, was of ſhort duration. The French poſſeſſed Canada, and had made conſiderable ſettlements in Florida, claiming the country on both ſides of the Miſſiſſippi, by right of diſcovery. To ſecure and extend their claims, they eſtabliſhed a line of forts, on the Engliſh poſſeſſions, from Canada, to Florida. They had ſecured the important paſs at Niagara, and erected a fort at the junction of the Allegany and Monongahela rivers, called Fort Du Queſne. They took pains to ſecure the friendſhip and aſſiſtance of the natives, enchroachments were made upon the Engliſh poſſeſſions, and mutual injuries ſucceeded. The diſputes among the ſettlers in America, and the meaſures taken by the French to command all the trade of the St. Lawrence river on the north, and of the Miſſiſſippi on the ſouth, excited a jealouſy in the Engliſh nation, which ſoon broke forth in open war.

In 1756, four expeditions were undertaken in America againſt the French. One was conducted by General Monckton, who had orders to drive the French from the encroachments on the province of Nova-Scotia. This expedition was attended with ſucceſs. General Johnſon was ordered, with a body of troops, to take poſſeſſion of Crown Point, but he did not ſucceed. General Shirley commanded an expedition againſt the fort at Niagara, but loſt the ſeaſon by delay. General Braddock marched againſt Fort Du Queſne, but in penetrating through the wilderneſs, he incautiouſly fell into an ambuſcade and ſuffered a total defeat. General Braddock was killed, but a part of his troops were ſaved by the prudence and bravery of General Waſhington, at this time a Colonel, who then began to exhibit proofs of thoſe millitary talents, by which he afterwards conducted the armies of America to victory, and his country to independence. The ill ſucceſs of theſe expeditions left the Engliſh ſettlements in America expoſed to the depredations of both the French and Indians. But the war now raged in Europe and the Eaſt-Indies, and engaged the attention of both nations in thoſe quarters.

It

It was not until the campaign in 1758 that affairs aſſumed a more favourable aſpect in America. But upon a change of adminiſtration, Mr. Pitt was appointed prime miniſter, and the operations of war became more vigorous and ſucceſsful. General Amherſt was ſent to take poſſeſſion of Cape Breton; and after a warm ſiege, the Garriſon of Louiſburgh ſurrendered by capitulation. General Forbes was ſucceſsful in taking poſſeſſion of Fort Du Queſne, which the French thought fit to abandon. But General Abercrombie, who commanded the troops deſtined to act againſt the French at Crown Point and Ticonderoga attacked the lines at Ticonderoga, where the enemy were ſtrongly entrenched, and was defeated with a terrible ſlaughter of his troops. After his defeat, he returned to his camp at Lake George.

The next year, more effectual meaſures were taken to ſubdue the French in America. General Prideax and Sir William Johnſon began the operations of the campaign by taking the French fort near Niagara *. General Amherſt took poſſeſſion of the forts at Crown Point and Ticonderoga which the French had abandonded.

But the deciſive blow, which proved fatal to the French intereſts in America, was the defeat of the French army, and the taking of Quebec by the brave General Wolfe. This hero was ſlain in the beginning of the action, on the plains of Abram, and Monſieur Montcalm, the French commander, likewiſe loſt his life. The loſs of Quebec was ſoon followed by the capture of Montreal by General Amherſt, and Canada has remained ever ſince in the poſſeſſion of the Engliſh.

Colonel Grant, in 1761, defeated the Cherokees in Carolina, and obliged them to ſue for peace. The next year, Martinico was taken by Admiral Rodney and General Monckton; and alſo the iſland of Grenada, St. Vincents and others. The capture of theſe was ſoon followed by the ſurrender of the Havanna, the capital of the iſland of Cuba.

In 1763, a definitive treaty of peace was concluded at Paris between Great-Britain, France, and Spain, by which the Engliſh ceded to the French ſeveral iſlands in the Weſt-Indies, but were confirmed in the poſſeſſion of all North America on this ſide the Miſſiſſippi, except New Orleans, and a ſmall diſtrict of the neighbouring country.

But this war, however brilliant the ſucceſſes, and glorious the event proved the cauſe of great and unexpected misfortunes to Great-Britain. Engaged with the combined powers of France and Spain, during ſeveral years, her exertions were ſurprizing, and her expenſe immenſe. To discharge the debts of the nation, the parliament was obliged to have recourſe to new expedients for raiſing money. Previous to the laſt treaty in 1763 the Parliament had been ſatisfied to raiſe a revenue from the American Colonies by a monopoly of their trade.

It will be proper here to obſerve that there were three kinds of government eſtabliſhed in the Britiſh American Colonies. The firſt was a charter government, by which the powers of legiſlation were veſted in a governor, council, and aſſembly, choſen by the people. Of this kind were the governments of Connecticut and Rhode-Iſland. The ſecond was

* *General Prideaux was killed by the burſting of a mortar, before the ſurrender of the French.*

proprie

proprietary government, in which the proprietor of the province was governor; although he generally reſided abroad, and adminiſtered the government by a deputy of his own appointment; the aſſembly only being choſen by the people. Such were the governments of Pennſylvania and Maryland; and originally of New-Jerſey and Carolina. The third kind was that of royal government, where the governor and council were appointed by the crown, and the aſſembly by the people. Of this kind were the governments of New-Hampſhire, Maſſachuſetts, New-York, New-Jerſey, after the year 1702; Virginia, the Carolinas, after the reſignation of the proprietors in 1728; and Georgia. This variety of governments created different degrees of dependence on the crown. To render laws valid, it was conſtitutionally required that they ſhould be ratified by the king; but this formality was often diſpenſed with, eſpecially in the charter governments.

At the beginning of the laſt war with France, commiſſioners from many of the colonies had aſſembled at Albany, and propoſed that a great council ſhould be formed by deputies from the ſeveral colonies, which, with a general governor to be appointed by the crown, ſhould be empowered to take meaſures for the common ſafety, and to raiſe money for the execution of their deſigns. This propoſal was not reliſhed by the Britiſh miniſtry; but in place of this plan, it was propoſed, that the governors of the colonies, with the aſſiſtance of one or two of their council, ſhould aſſemble and concert meaſures for the general defence; erect forts, levy troops, and draw on the treaſury of England for monies that ſhould be wanted; but the treaſury to be reimburſed by a tax on the colonies, to be laid by the Engliſh parliament. To this plan, which would imply an avowal of the right of parliament to tax the colonies, the provincial aſſemblies objected with unſhaken firmneſs. It ſeems therefore that the Britiſh parliament, *before* the war, had it in contemplation to exerciſe the right they claimed of taxing the colonies at pleaſure, without permitting them to be repreſented. Indeed it is obvious that they laid hold of the alarming ſituation of the colonies about the year 1754 and 1755, to force them into an acknowledgment of the right, or to the adoption of meaſures that might afterwards be drawn into precedent. The colonies, however, with an uncommon foreſight and firmneſs, defeated all their attempts. The war was carried on by requiſitions on the colonies for ſupplies of men and money, or by voluntary contributions.

But no ſooner was peace concluded, than the Engliſh parliament reſumed the plan of taxing the colonies; and to juſtify their attempts, ſaid, that the money to be raiſed, was to be appropriated to defray the expence of them in the late war.

The firſt attempt to raiſe a revenue in America appeared in the memorable *ſtamp act* paſſed March 22, 1765; by which it was enacted, that certain inſtruments of writing, as bills, bonds, &c. ſhould not be valid in law, unleſs drawn on ſtamped paper, on which a duty was laid. No ſooner was this act publiſhed in America, than it raiſed a general alarm. The people were filled with apprehenſions at an act which they ſuppoſed an attack on their conſtitutional rights. The colonies petitioned the king and parliament for redreſs of the grievance, and formed aſſociations for the purpoſe of preventing the importation and uſe of Britiſh manufactures, until the act ſhould be repealed. This ſpirited and unanimous

oppoſition of the Americans produced the deſired effect, and on the 18th of March, 1766, the ſtamp-act was repealed. The news of the repeal was received in the colonies with univerſal joy, and the trade between them and Great-Britain was renewed on the moſt liberal footing.

The parliament, by repealing this act, ſo obnoxious to their American brethren, did not intend to lay aſide the ſcheme of raiſing a revenue in the colonies, but merely to change the mode. Accordingly the next year they paſſed an act, laying a certain duty on glaſs, tea, paper and painters colours; articles which were much wanted, and not manufactured, in America. This act kindled the reſentment of the Americans, and excited a general oppoſition to the meaſure; ſo that parliament thought proper, in 1770, to take off theſe duties, except three-pence a pound on tea. Yet this duty, however trifling, kept alive the jealouſy of the coloniſts, and their oppoſition to parliamentary taxation continued and increaſed.

But it muſt be remembered, that the inconvenience of paying the duty was not the ſole nor principal cauſe of the oppoſition; it was the *principle*, which, once admitted, would have ſubjected the colonies to unlimitted parliamentary taxation, without the privilege of being repreſented. The *right*, abſtractly conſidered, was denied; and the ſmalleſt attempt to eſtabliſh the claim by precedent, was uniformly reſiſted. The Americans could not be deceived as to the views of parliament; for the repeal of the ſtamp-act was accompanied with an unequivocal declaration, 'that the parliament had a right to make laws of ſufficient validity to bind the colonies in all caſes whatſoever.'

The colonies therefore entered into meaſures to encourage their own manufactures, and home productions, and to retrench the uſe of foreign ſuperfluities; while the importation of tea was prohibited. In the royal and proprietary governments, the governors and people were in a ſtate of continual warfare. Aſſemblies were repeatedly called, and ſuddenly diſſolved. While ſitting, the aſſemblies employed the time in ſtating grievances and framing remonſtrances. To inflame theſe diſcontents, an act of parliament was paſſed, ordaining that the governors and judges ſhould receive their ſalaries of the crown; thus making them independent of the provincial aſſemblies, and removeable only at the pleaſure of the king.

Theſe arbitrary proceedings, with many others not here mentioned*, could not fail of producing a rupture. The firſt act of violence, was the maſſacre at Boſton, on the evening of the fifth of March, 1770. A body of Britiſh troops had been ſtationed in Boſton to awe the inhabitants, and inforce the meaſures of parliament. On the fatal day, when blood was to be ſhed, as a prelude to more tragic ſcenes, a riot was raiſed among ſome ſoldiers and boys; the former aggreſſing by throwing ſnow-balls at the latter. The bickerings and jealouſies between the inhabitants and ſoldiers, which had been frequent before, now became ſerious. A multitude was ſoon collected, and the controverſy became ſo warm, that to diſperſe the people, the troops were embodied

* *See an enumeration of grievances in the 'act of independence,' and in a variety of petitions to the king and parliament.*

and

and ordered to fire upon the inhabitants. This fatal order was executed, and ſeveral perſons fell a ſacrifice. The people reſtrained their vengeance at the time; but this wanton act of cruelty and military deſpotiſm fanned the flame of liberty; a flame that was not to be extinguiſhed but by a total ſeparation of the Colonies from their oppreſſive and hoſtile parent.

In 1773 the ſpirit of the Americans broke out into open violence. The Gaſpee, an armed ſchooner belonging to his Britannic Majeſty, had been ſtationed at Providence in Rhode-Iſland, to prevent ſmuggling. The vigilance of the commander irritated the inhabitants to that degree, that about two hundred armed men entered the veſſel at night, compelled the officers and men to go aſhore, and ſet fire to the ſchooner. A reward of five hundred pounds, offered by government for apprehending any of the perſons concerned in this daring act, produced no effectual diſcovery.

About this time, the diſcovery and publication of ſome private confidential letters, written by the royal officers in Boſton, to perſons in office in England, ſerved to confirm the apprehenſions of the Americans, with reſpect to the deſigns of the Britiſh government. It was now made obvious that more effectual meaſures would be taken to eſtabliſh the ſupremacy of the Britiſh Parliament over the Colonies. The letters recommended deciſive meaſures, and the writers were charged, by the exaſperated Americans, with betraying their truſt and the people they governed.

As the reſolutions of the Colonies not to import or conſume tea, had, in a great meaſure, deprived the Engliſh government of a revenue from this quarter, the parliament formed a ſcheme of introducing tea into America, under cover of the Eaſt-India Company. For this purpoſe an act was paſſed, enabling the Company to export all ſorts of teas, duty free, to any place whatever. The Company departed from their uſual mode of buſineſs, and became their own exporters. Several ſhips were freighted with teas, and ſent to the American colonies, and factors were appointed to receive and diſpoſe of their cargoes

The Americans, determined to oppoſe the revenue-ſyſtem of the Engliſh parliament in every poſſible ſhape, conſidered the attempt of the Eaſt-India Company to evade the reſolutions of the colonies, and diſpoſe of teas in America, as an indirect mode of taxation, ſanctioned by the authority of Parliament. The people aſſembled in various places, and in the large commercial towns took meaſures to prevent the landing of the teas. Committees were appointed, and armed with extenſive powers to inſpect merchants books, to propoſe teſts, and make uſe of other expedients to fruſtrate the deſigns of the Eaſt-India Company. The ſame ſpirit pervaded the people from New-Hampſhire to Georgia. In ſome places, the conſignees of the teas were intimidated ſo far as to relinquiſh their appointments, or to enter into engagements not to act in that capacity. The cargo ſent to South-Carolina was ſtored, the conſignees being reſtrained from offering the tea for ſale. In other provinces, the ſhips were ſent back without diſcharging their cargoes.

But in Boſton the tea ſhared a more violent fate. Senſible that no legal meaſures could prevent being landed, and that if once landed, it would be diſpoſed of; a number of men in diſguiſe, on the 18th of December 1773, entered the ſhips, and threw overboard three hundred and forty cheſts of it, which was the proportion belonging to the Eaſt-India

Company. No ſooner did the news of this deſtruction of the tea reach Great-Britain, than the parliament determined to puniſh that devoted town. On the king's laying the American papers before them, a bill was brought in and paſſed, 'to diſcontinue the landing and diſcharging, lading and ſhipping of goods, wares and merchandizes at the town of Boſton, or within the harbour.'

This act, paſſed March 25, 1774, called the Boſton Port Bill, threw the inhabitants of Maſſachuſetts into the greateſt conſternation. The town of Boſton paſſed a reſolution, expreſſing their ſenſe of this oppreſſive meaſure, and a deſire that all the colonies would concur to ſtop all importation from Great-Britain. Moſt of the colonies entered into ſpirited reſolutions, on this occaſion, to unite with Maſſachuſetts in a firm oppoſition to the unconſtitutional meaſures of the parliament. The firſt of June, the day on which the Port Bill was to take place, was appointed to be kept as a day of humiliation, faſting and prayer throughout the colonies, to ſeek the divine direction and aid, in that critical and gloomy juncture of affairs.

It ought here to be obſerved, that this rational and pious cuſtom of obſerving faſts in times of diſtreſs and impending danger, and of celebrating days of public thankſgiving, after having received ſpecial tokens of divine favour, has ever prevailed in New-England ſince its firſt ſettlement, and in ſome parts of other ſtates. Theſe public ſupplications and acknowledgments to heaven, at the commencement of hoſtilities, and during the whole progreſs of the war, were more frequent than uſual, and were attended with uncommon fervour and ſolemnity. They were conſidered by the people, as an humble appeal to heaven for the juſtneſs of their cauſe, and deſigned to manifeſt their dependence on the GOD OF HOSTS for aid and ſucceſs in maintaining it againſt their hoſtile brethren. The prayers and public diſcourſes of the Clergy who were friends to their ſuffering country (and there were very few who were not) breathed the ſpirit of patriotiſm; and as their piety and integrity had generally ſecured to them the confidence of the people, they had great influence and ſucceſs in encouraging them to engage in its defence. In this way, that venerable claſs of citizens aided the cauſe of their country; and to their pious exertions, under the GREAT ARBITER of human affairs, has been juſtly aſcribed no inconſiderable ſhare of the ſucceſs and victory that crowned the American arms.

During the height of the conſternation and confuſion which the Boſton Port Bill occaſioned; at the very time when a town-meeting was ſitting to conſider of it, General Gage, who had been appointed to the government of Maſſachuſetts, arrived in the harbour. His arrival however did not allay the popular ferment, or check the progreſs of the meaſures then taking, to unite the Colonies in oppoſition to the oppreſſive act of parliament.

But the Port Bill was not the only act that alarmed the apprehenſions of the Americans. Determined to compel the province of Maſſachuſetts to ſubmit to their laws, parliament paſſed an act for 'the better regulating government in the province of Maſſachuſetts Bay.' The object of this act was to alter the government, as it ſtood on the charter of King William, to take the appointment of the executive out of the hands of the people,

people, and place it in the crown; thus making even the judges and ſheriffs dependent on the king, and removeable only at his pleaſure.

This act was ſoon followed by another, which ordained, that any perſon, indicted for murder, or other capital offence, committed in aiding the magiſtrates in executing the laws, might be ſent by the governor either to another colony, or to Great-Britain, for his trial.

This was ſoon followed by the Quebec Bill; which extended the bounds of that province, and granted many privileges to the Roman Catholics. The object of this bill was, to ſecure the attachment of that province to the crown of England, and prevent its joining the colonies in their reſiſtance of the laws of parliament.

But theſe meaſures did not intimidate the Americans. On the other hand they ſerved to confirm their former apprehenſions of the evil deſigns of government, and to unite the colonies in their oppoſition. A correſpondence of opinion with reſpect to the unconſtitutional acts of parliament, produced a uniformity of proceedings in the colonies. The people generally concurred in a propoſition for holding a congreſs by deputation from the ſeveral colonies, in order to concert meaſures for the preſervation of their rights. Deputies were accordingly appointed, and met at Philaphia on the 26th of October, 1774.

In this firſt congreſs, the proceedings were cool, deliberate and loyal; but marked with unanimity and firmneſs. Their firſt act was a declaration, or ſtate of their claims as to the enjoyment of all the rights of Britiſh ſubjects, and particularly that of taxing themſelves excluſively, and of regulating the internal police of the colonies. They alſo drew up a petition to the king, complaining of their grievances, and praying for a repeal of the unconſtitutional and oppreſſive acts of parliament. They ſigned an aſſociation to ſuſpend the importation of Britiſh goods, and the exportation of American produce, until their grievances ſhould be redreſſed. They ſent an addreſs to the inhabitants of Great-Britain, and another to the people of America; in the former of which they enumerated the oppreſſive ſteps of parliament, and called on their Britiſh brethren not to aid the miniſtry in enſlaving their American ſubjects; and in the latter, they endeavoured to confirm the people in a ſpirited and unanimous determination to defend their conſtitutional rights.

In the mean time, every thing in Maſſachuſetts wore the appearance of oppoſition by force. A new council for the governor had been appointed by the crown. New judges were appointed and attempted to proceed in the execution of their office. But the juries refuſed to be ſworn under them; in ſome counties, the people aſſembled to prevent the courts from proceeding to buſineſs: and in Berkſhire they ſucceeded, ſetting an example of reſiſtance that has ſince been followed, in violation of the laws of the ſtate.

In this ſituation of affairs, the day for the annual muſter of the militia approached. General Gage, apprehenſive of ſome violence, had the precaution to ſeize the magazines of ammunition and ſtores at Cambridge and Charleſton, and lodged them in Boſton. This meaſure, with the fortifying of that neck of land which joins Boſton to the main land at Roxbury, cauſed a univerſal alarm and ferment. Several thouſand people aſſembled, and it was with difficulty they could be reſtrained from falling upon the Britiſh troops.

On this occaſion, an aſſembly of delegates from all the towns in Suffolk county was called; and ſeveral ſpirited reſolutions were agreed to. Theſe reſolutions were prefaced with a declaration of allegiance, but they breathed a ſpirit of freedom that does honour to the delegates. They declared that the late acts of parliament and the proceedings of General Gage, were glaring infractions of their rights and liberties, which their duty called them to defend by all lawful means.

This aſſembly remonſtrated againſt the fortification of Boſton Neck, and againſt the Quebec Bill; and reſolved upon a ſuſpenſion of commerce, an encouragement of arts and manufactures, the holding of a provincial congreſs, and a ſubmiſſion to the meaſures which ſhould be recommended by the continental congreſs. They recommended that the collectors of taxes ſhould not pay any money into the treaſury, without further orders; they alſo recommended peace and good order, as they meant to act merely upon the defenſive.

In anſwer to their remonſtrance, General Gage aſſured them that he had no intention to prevent the free egreſs and regreſs of the inhabitants to and from the town of Boſton, and that he would not ſuffer any perſon under his command to injure the perſon or property of any of his majeſty's ſubjects.

Previous to this, a general aſſembly had been ſummoned to meet; and notwithſtanding the writs had been countermanded by the governor's proclamation, on account of the violence of the times and the reſignation of ſeveral of the new counſellors, yet repreſentatives were choſen by the people who met at Salem, reſolved themſelves into a provincial congreſs, and adjourned to Concord.

This congreſs addreſſed the governor with a rehearſal of their diſtreſſes, and took the neceſſary ſteps for defending their rights. They regulated the militia, made proviſion for ſupplying the treaſury, and furniſhing the people with arms; and ſuch was the enthuſiaſm and union of the people that the recommendations of the provincial congreſs had the force of laws.

General Gage was incenſed at the meaſures—he declared, in his anſwer to the addreſs, that Britain could never harbour the black deſign of enſlaving her ſubjects, and publiſhed a proclamation, in which he inſinuated, that ſuch proceedings amounted to rebellion. He alſo ordered barracks to be erected for the ſoldiers; but he found difficulty in procuring labourers, either in Boſton or New-York.

In the beginning of 1775, the fiſhery bills were paſſed in parliament, by which the colonies were prohibited to trade with Great-Britain, Ireland, or the Weſt-Indies, or to take fiſh on the banks of Newfoundland.

In the diſtreſſes to which theſe acts of parliament reduced the town of Boſton, the unanimity of the colonies was remarkable in the large ſupplies of proviſion, furniſhed by the inhabitants of different towns from New-Hampſhire to Georgia, and ſhipped to the relief of the ſufferers.

Preparations began to be made to oppoſe by force the execution of theſe acts of parliament. The militia of the country were trained to the uſe of arms—great encouragement was given for the manufacture of gunpowder, and meaſures were taken to obtain all kinds of military ſtores.

In February, Colonel Leſlie was ſent with a detachment of troops from Boſton, to take poſſeſſion of ſome cannon at Salem. But the people had intelligence

intelligence of the design—took up the draw-bridge in that town, and prevented the troops from passing, until the cannon were secured; so that the expedition failed.

In April, Colonel Smith and Major Pitcairn were sent with a body of about nine hundred troops, to destroy the military stores which had been collected at Concord, about twenty miles from Boston. It is believed, that another object of this expedition was to seize on the persons of Messrs. Hancock and Adams, who, by their spirited exertions, had rendered themselves very obnoxious to General Gage. At Lexington, the militia was collected on a green, to oppose the incursion of the British forces. These were fired upon by the British troops, and eight men killed on the spot.

The militia were dispersed, and the troops proceeded to Concord, where they destroyed a few stores. But on their return, they were incessantly harrassed by the Americans, who, inflamed with just resentment, fired upon them from houses and fences, and pursued them to Boston. The loss of the British in this expedition, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, was two hundred and seventy-three men.

Here was spilt the *first blood* in the late war; a war which severed America from the British empire. *Lexington* opened the first scene of this great drama, which, in its progress, exhibited the most illustrious characters and events, and closed with a revolution, equally glorious for the actors, and important in its consequences to mankind.

This battle roused all America. The militia collected from all quarters, and Boston, in a few days, was besieged by twenty thousand men. A stop was put to all intercourse between the town and country, and the inhabitants were reduced to great want of provisions. General Gage promised to let the people depart, if they would deliver up their arms. The people complied, but when the general had obtained their arms, the perfidious man refused to let the people go.

This breach of faith, and the consequences that attend it, were justly and greatly complained of; and although many, at different times, were permitted to leave the town, they were obliged to leave all their effects behind; so that many who had been used to live in ease and affluence, were at once reduced to extreme indigence and misery. A circumstance peculiarly and wantonly aggravating, and which was the ground of the bitterest complaints of Congress, was, that passports were granted or retained in such a manner, as that families were broken, and the dearest connections separated; part being compelled to quit the town, and part cruelly retained against their inclination.

In the mean time, a small number of men, to the amount of about two hundred and forty, under the command of Colonel Allen and Colonel Easton, without any public orders, surprized and took the British garrisons at Ticonderoga and Crown Point, without the loss of a man on either side.

During these transactions, the Generals Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, arrived at Boston from England, with a number of troops. In June following, our troops attempted to fortify Bunker's-hill, which lies near Charleston, and but a mile and an half from Boston. They had, during the night, thrown up a small breast-work, which sheltered them from

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the fire of the Britiſh cannon. But the next morning, the Britiſh army was ſent to drive them from the hill, and landing under cover of their cannon, they ſet fire to Charleſton, which was conſumed, and marched to attack our troops in the entrenchments. A ſevere engagement enſued, in which the Britiſh, according to their own accounts, had ſeven hundred and forty killed, and eleven hundred and fifty wounded. They were repulſed at firſt, and thrown into diſorder; but they finally carried the fortification, with the point of the bayonet. The Americans ſuffered a ſmall loſs, compared with the Britiſh; the whole loſs in killed, wounded, and priſoners being but about four hundred and fifty.

The loſs moſt lamented on this bloody day was that of Dr. Warren, who was at this time a major-general, and commanded the troops on this occaſion. He died like a brave man, fighting valiantly at the head of his party, in a little redoubt at the right of our lines.

General Warren, who had rendered himſelf conſpicuous by his univerſal merit, abilities, and eloquence, had been a delegate to the firſt general congreſs, and was at this time preſident of the provincial congreſs of Maſſachuſetts. But quitting the humane and peaceable walk of his profeſſion as a phyſician, and breaking through the endearing ties of family connections, he proved himſelf equally calculated for the field, as for public buſineſs or private ſtudy.

About this time, the Continental Congreſs appointed George Waſhington, Eſq; a native of Virginia, to the chief command of the American army *. This gentleman had been a diſtinguiſhed and ſucceſsful officer in the preceding war, and he ſeemed deſtined by heaven to be the ſaviour of his country. He accepted the appointment with a diffidence which was a proof of his prudence and his greatneſs. He refuſed any pay for eight years laborious and arduous ſervice; and by his matchleſs ſkill, fortitude, and perſeverance, conducted America through indeſcribeable difficulties, to independence and peace.

While true merit is eſteemed, or virtue honoured, mankind will never ceaſe to revere the memory of this Hero; and while gratitude remains in the human breaſt, the praiſes of WASHINGTON ſhall dwell on every American tongue.

General Waſhington, with other officers appointed by congreſs, arrived at Cambridge, and took command of the American army in July. From this time, the affairs of America began to aſſume the appearance of a regular and general oppoſition to the forces of Great-Britain.

In Autumn, a body of troops, under the command of General Montgomery, beſieged and took the garriſon at St. John's, which commands the entrance into Canada. The priſoners amounted to about ſeven hundred. General Montgomery purſued his ſucceſs, and took Montreal; and deſigned his victories to Quebec.

A body of troops, commanded by General Arnold, was ordered to march to Canada, by the river Kenebeck, and through the wilderneſs. After ſuffering every hardſhip, and the moſt diſtreſſing hunger, they arrived in Canada, and were joined by General Montgomery, before Quebec. This city, which was commanded by Governor Carleton, was immediately beſieged. But there being little hope of taking the town by a ſiege, it was determined to ſtorm it.

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* *See Note* (A) *at the cloſe of his hiſtory.*

The attack was made on the laſt day of December, but proved unſucceſsful, and fatal to the brave General *; who, with his aid, was killed in attempting to ſcale the walls.

Of the three diviſions which attacked the town, one only entered, and that was obliged to ſurrender to ſuperior force. After this defeat, Gen. Arnold, who now commanded the troops, continued ſome months before Quebec, although his troops ſuffered incredibly by cold and ſickneſs. But the next ſpring, the Americans were obliged to retreat from Canada.

About this time, the large and flouriſhing town of Norfolk in Virginia was wantonly burned by order of Lord Dunmore, the then royal governor of that province.

General Gage went to England in September, and was ſucceeded in the command by General Howe.

Falmouth, a conſiderable town in the province of Main, in Maſſachuſetts, ſhared the fate of Norfolk; being laid in aſhes by order of the Britiſh admiral.

The Britiſh king entered into treaties with ſome of the German Princes for about ſeventeen thouſand men, who were to be ſent to America the next year, to aſſiſt in ſubduing the colonies. The parliament alſo paſſed an act, forbidding all intercourſe with America; and while they repealed the Boſton-port and fiſhery bills, they declared all American property on the high ſeas forfeited to the captors. This act induced Congreſs to change the mode of carrying on the war; and meaſures were taken to annoy the enemy in Boſton. For this purpoſe, batteries were opened on ſeveral hills, from whence ſhot and bombs were thrown into the town. But the batteries which were opened on Dorcheſter point had the beſt effect, and ſoon obliged General Howe to abandon the town. In March, 1776, the Britiſh troops embarked for Halifax, and General Waſhington entered the town in triumph.

In the enſuing ſummer, a ſmall ſquadron of ſhips, commanded by Sir Peter Parker, and a body of troops, under the Generals Clinton and Cornwallis, attempted to take Charleſton, the capital of South Carolina. The ſhips made a violent attack upon the fort on Sullivan's Iſland, but were repulſed with great loſs, and the expedition was abandoned.

In July, Congreſs publiſhed their declaration of independence, which ſeparated America from Great-Britain. This great event took place two hundred and eighty-four years after the firſt diſcovery of America by Columbus—one hundred and ſixty-ſix, from the firſt effectual ſettlement in Virginia—and one hundred and fifty-ſix from the firſt ſettlement of Plymouth in Maſſachuſetts, which were the earlieſt Engliſh ſettlements in America.

Juſt after this declaration, General Howe, with a powerful force, arrived near New-York, and landed the troops upon Staten Iſland. General Waſhington was in New-York, with about thirteen thouſand men, who were encamped either in the city or the neighbouring fortifications.

The operations of the Britiſh began by the action on Long Iſland, in the month of Auguſt. The Americans were defeated, and General Sullivan and Lord Stirling, with a large body of men, were made priſoners. The night after the engagement, a retreat was ordered, and executed with ſuch

* *See Note* (B).

ſuch ſilence, that the Americans left the iſland without alarming their enemies, and without loſs.

In September, the city of New-York was abandoned by the American army, and taken by the Britiſh.

In November, Fort Waſhington on York Iſland was taken, and more than two thouſand men made priſoners. Fort Lee, oppoſite to Fort Waſhington, on the Jerſey ſhore, was ſoon after taken, but the garriſon eſcaped.

About the ſame time, General Clinton was ſent with a body of troops to take poſſeſſion of Rhode Iſland, and ſucceeded. In addition to all theſe loſſes and defeats, the American army ſuffered by deſertion, and more by ſickneſs, which was epidemic, and very mortal.

The northern army at Ticonderoga was in a diſagreeable ſituation, particularly after the battle on Lake Champlain, in which the American force, conſiſting of a few light veſſels under the command of generals Arnold and Waterbury, was totally diſperſed. But general Carleton, inſtead of purſuing his victory, landed at Crown Point, reconnoitred our poſts at Ticonderoga and Mount Independence, and returned to winter quarters in Canada.

The American army might now be ſaid to be no more. All that now remained of an army, which at the opening of the campaign amounted to at leaſt twenty-five thouſand men, did not now exceed three thouſand. The term of their engagements being expired, they returned, in large bodies, to their families and friends; the few, who from perſonal attachment, local circumſtances, or ſuperior perſeverance and bravery, continued with the Generals Waſhington and Lee, were too inconſiderable to appear formidable in the view of a powerful and victorious enemy.

In this alarming and critical ſituation of affairs, General Lee, through an imprudent careleſſneſs, which ill became a man in his important ſtation, was captured by a party of the Britiſh light horſe commanded by Col. Harcourt; this unfortunate circumſtance gave a ſevere ſhock to the remaining hopes of the little army, and rendered their ſituation truly diſtreſſing.

While theſe things were tranſacting in New-Jerſey, General Waſhington, far from being diſcouraged by the loſs of General Lee, and always ready to improve every advantage to raiſe the drooping ſpirits of his handful of men, had made a ſtand on the Pennſylvania ſide of the Delaware. Here he collected his ſcattered forces, called in the aſſiſtance of the Pennſylvania militia, and on the night of the 25th of December (1776), when the enemy were lulled into ſecurity by the idea of his weakneſs, and by the inclemency of the night, which was remarkably boiſterous, as well as by the fumes of a Chriſtmas-eve, he croſſed the river, and at the breaking of day, marched down to Trenton, and ſo completely ſurprized them, that the greater part of the detachment which were ſtationed at this place, ſurrendered after a ſhort reſiſtance. The horſemen and a few others made their eſcape at the oppoſite end of the town. Upwards of nine hundred Heſſians were taken priſoners at this time.

This ſucceſsful expedition firſt gave a favourable turn to our affairs, which, after this, ſeemed to brighten through the whole courſe of the war. Soon after, General Waſhington attacked the Britiſh troops at Princeton, and

and obtained a complete victory; not, however, without being bravely oppoſed by Colonel Mawhood.

The addreſs in planning and executing theſe enterprizes reflected the higheſt honour on the commander, and the ſucceſs revived the deſponding hopes of America. The loſs of General Mercer, a gallant officer, at Princeton, was the principal circumſtance that allayed the joys of victory.

The following year, 1777, was diſtinguiſhed by very remarkable events in favour of America. On the opening of the campaign, Governor Tryon was ſent with a body of troops to deſtroy the ſtores at Danbury, in Connecticut. This plan was executed, and the town moſtly burnt. The enemy ſuffered in their retreat, and the Americans loſt General Wooſter, a brave and experienced officer.

General Preſcot was taken from his quarters, on Rhode Iſland, by the addreſs and enterprize of colonel Barton, and conveyed priſoner to the continent.

General Burgoyne, who commanded the northern Britiſh army, took poſſeſſion of Ticonderoga, which had been abandoned by the Americans. He puſhed his ſucceſſes, croſſed Lake George, and encamped upon the banks of the Hudſon, near Saratoga. His progreſs, however, was checked by the defeat of colonel Baum, near Bennington, in which the undiſciplined militia of Vermont, under general Stark, diſplayed unexampled bravery, and captured almoſt the whole detachment.

The militia aſſembled from all parts of New-England to ſtop the progreſs of General Burgoyne.

Theſe, with the regular troops, formed a reſpectable army, commanded by General Gates. After two ſevere actions, in which the Generals Lincoln and Arnold behaved with uncommon gallantry, and were wounded, General Burgoyne found himſelf encloſed with brave troops, and was forced to ſurrender his whole army, amounting, according to ſome, to ten thouſand, and according to others to five thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty-two men, into the hands of the Americans. This memorable event happened on the 17th of October, 1777; and diffuſed an univerſal joy over America, and laid a foundation for the treaty with France.

But before theſe tranſactions, the main body of the Britiſh forces had embarked at New-York, ſailed up the Cheſapeek, and landed at the head of Elk river. The army ſoon began their march for Philadelphia. General Waſhington had determined to oppoſe them, and for this purpoſe made a ſtand, firſt at Red Clay Creek, and then upon the heights, near Brandwine Creek. Here the armies engaged, and the Americans were overpowered, and ſuffered great loſs. The enemy ſoon purſued their march, and took poſſeſſion of Philadelphia, towards the cloſe of September.

Not long after, the two armies were again engaged at German-town, and in the beginning of the action, the Americans had the advantage; but by ſome unlucky accident, the fortune of the day was turned in favour of the Britiſh. Both ſides ſuffered conſiderable loſſes; on the ſide of the Americans was general Naſh.

In an attack upon the forts at Mud-Iſland and Red-Bank, the Heſſians were unſucceſsful, and their commander, colonel Donop, killed. The Britiſh

British alſo loſt the Auguſta, a ſhip of the line. But the forts were afterwards taken, and the navigation of the Delaware opened. General Waſhington was reinforced with part of the troops which had compoſed the northern army, under General Gates; and both armies retired to winter quarters.

In October, the ſame month in which General Burgoyne was taken at Saratoga, General Vaughan, with a ſmall fleet, ſailed up Hudſon's river, and wantonly burnt Kingſton, a beautiful Dutch ſettlement, on the weſt ſide of the river.

The beginning of the next year, 1778, was diſtinguiſhed by a treaty of alliance between France and America; by which we obtained a powerful and generous ally. When the Engliſh miniſtry were informed that this treaty was on foot, they diſpatched commiſſioners to America, to attempt a reconciliation. But America would not now accept their offers. Early in the ſpring, Count de Eſtaign, with a fleet of fifteen ſail of the line, was ſent by the court of France to aſſiſt America.

General Howe left the army, and returned to England; the command then devolved upon Sir Henry Clinton.

In June, the Britiſh army left Philadelphia, and marched for New-York. On their march they were annoyed by the Americans; and at Monmouth, a very regular action took place between part of the armies; the enemy were repulſed with great loſs, and had General Lee obeyed his orders, a ſignal victory muſt have been obtained. General Lee, for ill conduct that day, was ſuſpended, and was never afterwards permitted to join the army.

General Lee's conduct, at ſeveral times before this, had been very ſuſpicious. In December, 1776, he lay at Chatham, about eleven miles from Elizabeth-Town, with a brigade of troops, when a great quantity of baggage was ſtored at Elizabeth-Town, under a guard of only five hundred Heſſians. General Lee was apprized of this, and might have ſurprized the guard and taken the baggage. But he neglected the opportunity, and after ſeveral marches and counter-marches between Troy, Chatham, and Morris-Town, he took up his quarters at or near White's tavern, where he was ſurprized and taken priſoner by a party of the Britiſh horſe. He was heard to ſay, repeatedly, that General Waſhington would ruin a fine army. It was ſuſpected that he had deſigns to ſupplant the General, and his friends attempted to place him at the head of the army. General Waſhington's prudent delays and cautious movements afforded General Lee's friends many opportunities to ſpread reports unfavourable to his character. It was inſinuated, with ſome ſucceſs, that General Waſhington wanted courage and abilities. Reports of this kind, at one time, rendered General Lee very popular, and it is ſuppoſed he wiſhed to fruſtrate General Waſhington's plans, in order to increaſe the ſuſpicions already entertained of his generalſhip, and turn the public clamour in his own favour. His conduct at Monmouth muſt have proceeded from ſuch a deſign; for he commanded the flower of the American army, and was not deſtitute of courage.

In Auguſt, General Sullivan, with a large body of troops, attempted to take poſſeſſion of Rhode Iſland, but did not ſucceed. Soon after, the ſtores and ſhipping at Bedford in Maſſachuſetts, were burnt by a party of

of the Britiſh troops. The ſame year, Savannah, then the capital of Georgia, was taken by the Britiſh, under the command of Colonel Campbell.

In the following year (1779) general Lincoln was appointed to the command of the ſouthern army.

Governor Tryon and Sir George Collyer made an incurſion into Connecticut, and burnt, with wanton barbarity, the towns of Fairfield and Norwalk. But the American arms were crowned with ſucceſs, in a bold attack upon Stoney Point, which was ſurprized and taken by general Wayne, in the night of the 15th of July. Five hundred men were made priſoners, with little loſs on either ſide.

A party of Britiſh forces attempted this ſummer, to build a fort on Penobſcot river, for the purpoſe of cutting timber in the neighbouring foreſts. A plan was laid by Maſſachuſetts to diſlodge them, and a conſiderable fleet collected for the purpoſe. But the plan failed of ſucceſs, and the whole marine force fell into the hands of the Britiſh, except ſome veſſels which were burnt by the Americans themſelves.

In October, General Lincoln and Count de Eſtaing made an aſſault upon Savannah; but they were repulſed with conſiderable loſs. In this action, the celebrated Poliſh Count Pulaſki, who had acquired the reputation of a brave ſoldier, was mortally wounded.

In this ſummer, General Sullivan marched with a body of troops, into the Indians country, and burnt and deſtroyed all their proviſions and ſettlements that fell in their way.

On the opening of the Campaign the next year (1780) the Britiſh troops left Rhode-Iſland. An expedition under General Clinton and Lord Corwallis, was undertaken againſt Charleſton, South-Carolina, where General Lincoln commanded. This town, after a cloſe ſiege of about ſix weeks, was ſurrendered to the Britiſh commander; and General Lincoln, and the whole American garriſon, were made priſoners.

General Gates was appointed to the Command in the ſouthern department, and another army collected. In Auguſt, Lord Cornwallis attacked the American troops at Camden, in South-Carolina, and routed them with conſiderable loſs. He afterwards marched through the ſouthern ſtates, and ſuppoſed them entirely ſubdued.

The ſame ſummer, the Britiſh troops made frequent incurſions from New-York into the Jerſies, ravaging and plundering the country.

In June, a large body of the enemy, commanded by General Knipſhauſen, landed at Elizabeth-Town point, and proceeded into the country. They were much harraſſed in their progreſs by colonel Dayton and the troops under his command. When they arrived at Connecticut Farms, according to their uſual but ſacrilegious cuſtom, they burnt the Preſbyterian church*, parſonage houſe, and a conſiderable part of the village. But the moſt cruel and wanton act that was perpetrated during this incurſion, was the murder of Mrs. Caldwell, the wife of the Reverend Mr. Caldwell, of Elizabeth-Town.

* *Preſbyterian Churches were called* neſts *of* rebellion; *and it appears by the number that were burnt in every part of this continent where the Britiſh had acceſs, that they were particularly obnoxious.*

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This amiable woman, seeing the enemy advancing, retired with her house-keeper, a child of three years old, an infant of eight months, and a little maid, to a room secured on all sides by stone walls, except at a window opposite the enemy. She prudently took this precaution to avoid the danger of transient shot, should the ground be disputed near that place, which happened not to be the case; neither was there any firing from either party near the house until the fatal moment, when Mrs. Caldwell, unsuspicious of any immediate danger, sitting on the bed with her little child by the hand, and her nurse, with her infant babe by her side, was instantly shot dead by an unfeeling British soldier, who had come round to the unguarded part of the house with an evident design to perpetrate the horrid deed. Many circumstances attending this inhuman murder, evince, not only that it was committed by the enemy with design, but also, that it was by the permission, if not by the command, of General Kniphausen, in order to intimidate the populace to relinquish their cause. A circumstance which aggravated this piece of cruelty, was, that when the British officers were made acquainted with the murder, they did not interfere to prevent the corpse from being stripped and burnt, but left it half the day, stripped in part, to be tumbled about by the rude soldiery; and at last it was removed from the house, before it was burned, by the aid of those who were not of the army.

Mrs. Caldwell was an amiable woman, of a sweet and even temper, discreet, prudent, benevolent, soft and engaging in her manners, and beloved by all her acquaintance. She left nine promising children.

Mrs. Caldwell's death was soon followed by that of her husband's. In November, 1781, Mr. Caldwell, hearing of the arrival of a young lady at Elizabeth-Town point, whose family in New-York had been peculiarly kind to the American prisoners, rode down to escort her up to town. Having received her into his chair, the sentinel observing a little bundle tied in the lady's handkerchief, said it must be seized for the state. Mr. Caldwell instantly left the chair, saying that he would deliver it to the commanding officer, who was then present; and as he stepped forward with this view, another soldier impertinently told him to stop, which he immediately did; the soldier notwithstanding, without further provocation, shot him dead on the spot. Such was the untimely fate of Mr. Caldwell. His public discourses were sensible, animated and persuasive; his manner of delivery agreable and pathetic. He was a very warm patriot, and greatly distinguished himself in supporting the cause of his suffering country. As a husband he was kind; as a citizen given to hospitality. The villain who murdered him was seized and executed.

In July, a French fleet, under Monsieur de Ternay, with a body of land forces, commanded by Count de Rochambeau, arrived at Rhode-Island, to the great joy of the Americans.

This year was also distinguished by the infamous treason of General Arnold. General Washington having some business to transact at Wethersfield in Connecticut, left Arnold to command the important post of Westpoint; which guards a pass in Hudson's river, about sixty miles from New-York. Arnolds conduct in the city of Philadelphia, the preceding winter, had been censured; and the treatment he received in consequence, had given him offence.

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He determined to take revenge; and for this purpoſe, he entered into a negociation with Sir Henry Clinton, to deliver Weſtpoint, and the army, into the hands of the Britiſh. While General Waſhington was abſent, he diſmounted the cannon in ſome of the forts, and took other ſteps to render the taking of the poſt eaſy for the enemy.

But by a providential diſcovery, the whole plan was defeated. Major Andre, aid to general Clinton, a brave officer, who had been ſent up the river as a ſpy, to concert the plan of operations with Arnold, was taken, condemned by a court martial, and executed Arnold made his eſcape, by getting on board the Vulture, a Britiſh veſſel, which lay in the river. His conduct has ſtamped him with infamy; and, like all traitors, he is deſpiſed by all mankind. General Waſhington arrived in camp juſt after Arnold had made his eſcape, and reſtored order in the garriſon.

After the defeat of general Gates in Carolina, General Greene was appointed to the command in the ſouthern department*. From this period, things in that quarter wore a more favourabe aſpect. Colonel Tarleton, the active commander of the Britiſh legion, was defeated by General Morgan, the intrepid commander of the rifle men.

After a variety of movements, the two armies met at Guilford, in Carolina. Here was one of the beſt fought actions during the war. General Greene and Lord Cornwallis exerted themſelves at the head of their reſpective armies; and although the Americans were obliged to retire from the field of battle, yet the Britiſh army ſuffered an immenſe loſs, and could not purſue the victory. This action happened on the 15th March, 1781.

In the ſpring, Arnold, the traitor, who was made a brigadier-general in the Britiſh ſervice, with a ſmall number of troops, ſailed for Virginia, and plundered the country. This called the attention of the French fleet to that quarter; and a naval engagement took place between the Engliſh and French, in which ſome of the Engliſh ſhips were much damaged, and one entirely diſabled.

After the battle of Guilford, General Greene moved towards South-Carolina, to drive the Britiſh from their poſts in that ſtate. Here Lord Rawdon obtained an inconſiderable advantage over the Americans, near Camden. But General Greene more than recovered this diſadvantage, by the brilliant and ſucceſsful action at the Eutaw Springs; where General Marian diſtinguiſhed himſelf, and the brave Colonel Waſhington was wounded and taken priſoner.

Lord Cornwallis, finding General Greene ſucceſsful in Carolina, marched to Virginia, collected his forces, and fortified himſelf in York town. In the mean time Arnold made an incurſion into Connecticut, burnt a part of New London, took Fort Griſwold by ſtorm, and put the garriſon to the ſword. The garriſon conſiſted chiefly of men ſuddenly collected from the little town of Groton, which, by the ſavage cruelty of the Britiſh officer who commanded the attack, loſt, in one hour, almoſt all its heads of families. The brave Colonel Ledyard, who commanded the fort, was ſlain with his own ſword, after he ſurrendered.

* *Note* (C)

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The Marquis de la Fayette, the brave and generous nobleman, whose ſervices command the gratitude of every American, had been diſpatched with about two thouſand light infantry, from the main army, to watch the motions of Lord Cornwallis in Virginia. He proſecuted this expedition with the greateſt military ability. Although his force was much inferior to that of the enemy, he obliged them to leave Richmond, and Williamſburgh, and to ſeek protection under their ſhipping.

About the laſt of Auguſt, count de Graſſe arrived with a large fleet in the Cheſapeek, and blocked up the Britiſh troops at York town, Admiral Greaves, with a Britiſh fleet appeared off the Capes, and an action ſucceeded; but it was not deciſive.

General Waſhington had before this time moved the main body of his army, together with the French troops, to the ſouthward; and as ſoon as he heard of the arrival of the French fleet in the Cheſapeek, he made rapid marches to the head of Elk, where embarking, the troops ſoon arrived at York-town.

A cloſe ſiege immediately commenced, and was carried on with ſuch vigour, by the combined forces of America and France, that Lord Cornwallis was obliged to ſurrender. This glorious event, which took place on the 19th of October, 1781, decided the conteſt in favour of America and laid the foundation of a general peace.

A few months after the ſurrender of Cornwallis, the Britiſh evacuated all their poſts in South-Carolina and Georgia, and retired to the main army in New-York.

On the night of the 3d of March, 1783, Major William Crane Captain Thomas Quigley, and ſix others, embarked from Elizabeth-Town point in a whale-boat, and proceeded for New-York, where they boarded and took poſſeſſion of a twenty-four gun ſhip, called the Eagle, then lying under the cold battery. This expedition was conducted with ſo much gallantry and addreſs, that no oppoſition was attempted by the crew; on the contrary, every individual ſought a place of ſecurity; but their endeavours for that purpoſe were rendered abortive by the unprecedented valour and vigilance of thoſe heroic men, who conducted the enterprize.—After having captured three naval captains, and eighteen men, they ſecured them on board the ſloop, which then lay along ſide the Eagle, and which was laden with one hundred and nineteen puncheons of Jamaica ſpirits, moſt of the ſhips ſails, with twelve nine pounders, loaded and mounted, beſides muſquets, &c.—The ſloop they brought off, and paſſed through the Kills, without moleſtation for Elizabeth-Town point; where, having lightened the veſſel, they conducted her in triumph to the landing.

The next ſpring (1782) Sir Guy Carleton arrived in New-York, and took the command of the Britiſh army in America. Immediately on his arrival, he acquainted General Waſhington and Congreſs, that negociations for a peace had been commenced at Paris.

On the 30th of November, 1782, the proviſional articles of peace were ſigned at Paris; by which Great-Britain acknowledged the independence and ſovereignty of the United States of America; and theſe articles were ratified by a definitive treaty.

Thus ended a long and arduous conflict, in which Great-Britain expended near an hundred millions of money, with an hundred thouſand lives,

lives, and won nothing. America endured every cruelty and diſtreſs from her enemies; loſt many lives and much treaſure; but delivered herſelf from a foreign dominion, and gained a rank among the nations of the earth.

Holland acknowledged the independence of the United States on the 19th of April, 1782; Sweden, February 5th, 1783; Denmark, the 25th of February; Spain in March, and Ruſſia in July, 1783.

No ſooner was peace reſtored by the definitive treaty, and the Britiſh troops withdrawn from the country, than the United States began to experience the defects of their general government. While an enemy was in the country, fear, which had firſt impelled the coloniſts to aſſociate in mutual defence, continued to operate as a band of political union. It gave to the reſolutions and recommendations of congreſs the force of laws, and generally commanded a ready acquieſcence on the part of the ſtate legiſlatures. Articles of confederation and perpetual union had been framed in congreſs, and ſubmitted to the conſideration of the ſtates, in the year 1778. Some of the ſtates immediately acceded to them; but others, which had not unappropriated lands, heſitated to ſubſcribe a compact, which would give an advantage to the ſtates which poſſeſſed large tracts of unlocated lands, and were thus capable of a great ſuperiority in wealth and population. All objections however had been overcome, and by the acceſſion of Maryland in March 1781, the articles of confederation were ratified, as the frame of government for the United States.

Theſe articles however were framed during the rage of war, when a principle of common ſafety ſupplied the place of a coercive power in government; by men who could have had no experience in the art of governing an extenſive country, and under circumſtances the moſt critical and embarraſſing. To have offered to the people, at that time, a ſyſtem of government armed with the powers neceſſary to regulate and controul the contending intereſts of thirteen ſtates, and the poſſeſſions of millions of people, might have raiſed a jealouſy between the ſtates, or in the minds of the people at large, that would have weakened the operations of war, and perhaps have rendered a union impracticable. Hence the numerous defects of the confederation.

On the concluſion of peace, theſe defects began to be felt. Each ſtate aſſumed the right of diſputing the propriety of the reſolutions of Congreſs, and the intereſt of an individual ſtate was placed in oppoſition to the common intereſt of the union. In addition to this ſource of diviſion, a jealouſy of the powers of Congreſs began to be excited in the minds of people.

This jealouſy of the privileges of freemen, had been rouſed by the oppreſſive acts of the Britiſh parliament; and no ſooner had the danger from this quarter ceaſed, than the fears of people changed their object, and were turned againſt their own rulers.

In this ſituation, there were not wanting men of induſtry and talents, who had been enemies to the revolution, and who embraced the opportunity to multiply the apprehenſions of people, and increaſe the popular diſcontents. A remarkable inſtance of this happened in Connecticut. As ſoon as the tumults of war had ſubſided, an attempt was made to convince the people, that the act of Congreſs paſſed in 1778, granting to the officers

of the army half pay for life, was highly unjuſt and tyrannical; and that it was but the firſt ſtep towards the eſtabliſhment of penſions, and an uncontrolable deſpotiſm. The act of Congreſs, paſſed in 1783, commuting half pay for life for five years full pay, was deſigned to appeaſe the apprehenſions of people, and to convince them that this gratuity was intended merely to indemnify the officers for their loſſes by the depreciation of the paper currency; and not to eſtabliſh a precedent for the granting of penſions. This act however did not ſatisfy the people, who ſuppoſed that the officers had been generally indemnified for the loſs of their pay, by the grants made them from time to time by the legiſlatures of the ſeveral ſtates. Beſides the act, while it gave five years full pay to the officers, allowed but one year's pay to the privates; a diſtinction which had great influence in exciting and continuing the popular ferment, and one that turned a large ſhare of the public rage againſt the officers themſelves.

The moment an alarm was raiſed reſpecting this act of Congreſs, the enemies of our independence became active in blowing up the flame, by ſpreading reports unfavourable to the general government, and tending to create public diſſenſions. Newſpapers, in ſome parts of the country, were filled with inflammatory publications; while falſe reports and groundleſs inſinuations were induſtriouſly circulated to the prejudice of Congreſs and the officers of the late army. Among a people feelingly alive to every thing that could affect the rights for which they had been contending, theſe reports could not fail of having a powerful effect; the clamour ſoon became general; the officers of the army, it was believed, had attempted to raiſe their fortunes on the diſtreſſes of their fellow-citizens, and Congreſs become the tyrants of their country.

Connecticut was the ſeat of this uneaſineſs; although other ſtates were much agitated on the occaſion. But the inhabitants of that ſtate, accuſtomed to order and a due ſubordination to the laws, did not proceed to outrages; they took their uſual mode of collecting the ſenſe of the ſtate—aſſembled in town-meetings—appointed committees to meet in convention, and conſult what meaſures ſhould be adopted to procure a redreſs of their grievances. In this convention, which was held at Middletown, ſome nugatory reſolves were paſſed, expreſſing a diſapprobation of the half-pay act, and the ſubſequent commutation of the grant for five years whole pay. The ſame ſpirit alſo diſcovered itſelf in the aſſembly at their October ſeſſion in 1783. A remonſtrance againſt the acts in favour of the officers, was framed in the houſe of repreſentatives, and notwithſtanding the upper houſe refuſed to concur in the meaſure, it was ſent to Congreſs.

During this ſituation of affairs, the public odium againſt the officers was augmented by another circumſtance. The officers, juſt before the diſbanding of the army, had formed a ſociety, called by the name of the *Cincinnati*, after the Roman Dictator, Cincinnatus, which, it was ſaid, was intended to perpetuate the memory of the revolution, the friendſhip of the officers, and the union of the ſtates; and alſo to raiſe a fund for the relief of poor widows and orphans, whoſe huſbands and fathers had fallen during the war, and for their deſcendants. The ſociety was divided into ſtate ſocieties, which were to meet on the 4th of July, and with other buſineſs, depute a number of their members to convene annually in general meeting. The members of the inſtitution were to be diſtinguiſhed

guiſhed by wearing a medal, emblematical of the deſign of the ſociety, and the honors and advantages were to be hereditary in the eldeſt male heirs, and in default of male iſſue, in the collateral male heirs. Honorary members were to be admitted, but without the hereditary advantages of the ſociety, and provided their number ſhould never exceed the ratio of one to four of the officers or their deſcendants.

Whatever were the real views of the framers of this inſtitution, its deſign was generally underſtood to be harmleſs and honorable. The oſtenſible views of the ſociety could not however ſkreen it from popular jealouſy. A ſpirited pamphlet appeared in South Carolina, the avowed production of Mr. Burke, one of the Judges of the ſupreme court in that ſtate, in which the author attempted to prove, that the principles on which the ſociety was formed, would, in proceſs of time, originate and eſtabliſh an order of nobility in this country, which would be repugnant to the genius of our republican governments and dangerous to liberty. This pamphlet appeared in Connecticut, during the commotions raiſed by the half pay and commutation acts, and contributed not a little to ſpread the flame of oppoſition. Nothing could exceed the odium which prevailed at this time, againſt the men who had hazarded their perſons and properties in the revolution.

Notwithſtanding the diſcontents of the people were general, and ready to burſt forth in ſedition, yet men of information, viz. the officers of government, the clergy, and perſons of liberal education, were moſtly oppoſed to the unconſtitutional ſteps taken by the committees and convention at Middletown. They ſupported the propriety of the meaſures of Congreſs, both by converſation and writing, proved that ſuch grants to the army were neceſſary to keep the troops together, and that the expence would not be enormous nor oppreſſive. During the cloſe of the year 1783, every poſſible exertion was made to enlighten the people, and ſuch was the effect of the arguments uſed by the minority, that in the beginning of the following year, the oppoſition ſubſided, the committees were diſmiſſed, and tranquillity reſtored to the ſtate. In May, the legiſlature were able to carry ſeveral meaſures which had before been extremely unpopular. An act was paſſed granting the impoſt of five per cent. to Congreſs; another giving great encouragement to commerce, and ſeveral towns were incorporated with extenſive privileges, for the purpoſe of regulating the exports of the ſtate, and facilitating the collection of debts.

The oppoſition to the congreſſional acts in favor of the officers, and to the order of the Cincinnati, did not riſe to the ſame pitch in the other ſtates as in Connecticut; yet it produced much diſturbance in Maſſachuſetts, and ſome others. Jealouſy of power had been univerſally ſpread among the people of the United States. The deſtruction of the old forms of government, and the licentiouſneſs of war had, in a great meaſure, broken their habits of obedience; their paſſions had been inflamed by the cry of deſpotiſm; and like centinels, who have been ſuddenly ſurprized by the approach of an enemy, the ruſtling of a leaf was ſufficient to give them an alarm. This ſpirit of jealouſy, which has not yet ſubſided, and which will probably continue viſible during the preſent generation, operated with other cauſes to relax the energy of our federal operations.

During the war, vaſt ſums of paper currency had been emitted by Congreſs, and large quantities of ſpecie had been introduced, towards the cloſe of the war, by the French army, and the Spaniſh trade. This plenty of money enabled the ſtates to comply with the firſt requiſitions of Congreſs; ſo that during two or three years, the federal treaſury was, in ſome meaſure, ſupplied. But when the danger of war had ceaſed, and the vaſt importations of foreign goods had leſſened the quantity of circulating ſpecie, the ſtates began to be very remiſs in furniſhing their proportion of monies. The annihilation of the credit of the paper bills had totally ſtopped their circulation, and the ſpecie was leaving the country in cargoes, for remittances to Great-Britain; ſtill the luxurious habits of the people, contracted during the war, called for new ſupplies of goods, and private gratification ſeconded the narrow policy of ſtate-intereſt in defeating the operations of the general government.

Thus the revenues of Congreſs were annually diminiſhing; ſome of the ſtates wholly neglecting to make proviſion for paying the intereſt of the national debt; others making but a partial proviſion, until the ſcanty ſupplies received from a few of the rich ſtates, would hardly ſatisfy the demands of the civil liſt.

This weakneſs of the federal government, in conjunction with the flood of certificates or public ſecurities, which Congreſs could neither fund nor pay, occaſioned them to depreciate to a very inconſiderable value. The officers and ſoldiers of the late army were obliged to receive for wages theſe certificates, or promiſſary notes, which paſſed at a fifth, or eighth, or a tenth of their nominal value; being thus deprived at once of the greateſt part of the reward due for their ſervices. Some indeed profited by ſpeculations in theſe evidences of the public debt; but ſuch as were under a neceſſity of parting with them, were robbed of that ſupport which they had a right to expect and demand from their countrymen.

Pennſylvania indeed made proviſion for paying the intereſt of her debts, both ſtate and federal; aſſuming her ſuppoſed proportion of the continental debt, and giving the creditors her own ſtate notes in exchange for thoſe of the United States. The reſources of that ſtate are immenſe, but ſhe has not been able to make punctual payments, even in a depreciated paper currency.

Maſſachuſetts, in her zeal to comply fully with the requiſitions of Congreſs, and ſatisfy the demands of her own creditors, laid a heavy tax upon the people. This was the immediate cauſe of the rebellion in that ſtate, in 1786. But a heavy debt lying on the ſtate, added to burdens of the ſame nature, upon almoſt every corporation within it; a decline, or rather an extinction of public credit; a relaxation of corruption of manners, and a free uſe of foreign luxuries; a decay of trade and manufactures, with a prevailing ſcarcity of money; and, above all, individuals involved in debt to each other—theſe were the real, though more remote cauſes of the inſurrection. It was the tax which the people were required to pay, that cauſed them to feel the evils which we have enumerated—this called forth all their other grievances; and the firſt act of violence committed, was the burning or deſtroying of a tax-bill. This ſedition threw the ſtate into a convulſion which laſted about a year; courts of juſtice

were

were violently obſtructed; the collection of debts was ſuspended; and a body of armed troops, under the command of General Lincoln, was employed, during the winter 1786, to diſperſe the inſurgents. Yet ſo numerous were the latter in the counties of Worceſter, Hampſhire, and Berkſhire, and ſo obſtinately combined to oppoſe the execution of law by force, that the governor and council of the ſtate thought proper not to intruſt General Lincoln with military powers, except to act on the defenſive, and to repel force with force, in caſe the inſurgents ſhould attack him. The leaders of the rebels, however, were not men of talents; they were deſperate, but without fortitude; and while they were ſupported with a ſuperior force, they appeared to be impreſſed with that conſciouſneſs of guilt, which awes the moſt daring wretch, and makes him ſhrink from his purpoſe. This appears by the conduct of a large party of the rebels before the magazine at Springfield; where General Shepard, with a ſmall guard, was ſtationed to protect the continental ſtores. The inſurgents appeared upon the plain, with a vaſt ſuperiority of numbers, but a few ſhot from the artillery made the multitude retreat in diſorder with the loſs of four men. This ſpirited conduct of General Shepard, with the induſtry, perſeverance, and prudent firmneſs of General Lincoln, diſperſed the rebels, drove the leaders from the ſtate, and reſtored tranquillity. An act of indemnity was paſſed in the legiſlature for all the inſurgents, except a few leaders, on condition they ſhould become peaceable ſubjects and take the oath of allegiance. The leaders afterwards petitioned for pardon, which, from motives of policy, was granted by the legiſlature.

But the loſs of public credit, popular diſturbances, and inſurrections, were not the only evils which were generated by the peculiar circumſtances of the times. The emiſſions of bills of credit and tender laws, were added to the black catalogue of political diſorders.

The expedient of ſupplying the deficiencies of ſpecie, by emiſſions of paper bills, was apopted very early in the colonies. The expedient was obvious, and produced good effects. In a new country, where population is rapid, and the value of lands increaſing, the farmer finds an advantage in paying legal intereſt for money; for if he can pay the intereſt by his profits, the increaſing value of his lands will, in a few years, diſcharge the principal.

In no colony was this advantage more ſenſibly experienced than in Pennſylvania. The emigrations to that province were numerous—the natural population rapid—and theſe circumſtances combined, advanced the value of real property to an aſtoniſhing degree. As the firſt ſettlers there, as well as in other provinces, were poor, the purchaſe of a few foreign articles drained them of ſpecie. Indeed, for many years, the balance of trade muſt have neceſſarily been greatly againſt the colonies.

But bills of credit, emitted by the ſtate, and loaned to the induſtrious inhabitants, ſupplied the want of ſpecie, and enabled the farmer to purchaſe ſtock. Theſe bills were generally a legal tender in all colonial or private contracts, and the ſums iſſued did not generally exceed the quantity requiſite for a medium of trade, they retained their full nominal value in the purchaſe of commodities. But as they were not received by the Britiſh merchants, in payment for their goods, there was a great demand

for

for ſpecie and bills, which occaſioned the latter at various times to appreciate. Thus was introduced a difference between the Engliſh ſterling money and the currencies of the colonies which remains to this day *.

The advantages the colonies had derived from bills of credit, under the Britiſh government, ſuggeſted to Congreſs, in 1775, the idea of iſſuing bills for the purpoſe of carrying on the war. And this was perhaps their only expedient. Money could not be raiſed by taxation—it could not be borrowed. The firſt emiſſions had no other effect upon the medium of commerce, than to drive the ſpecie from circulation. But when the paper ſubſtituted for ſpecie had, by repeated emiſſions, augmented the ſum in circulation, much beyond the uſual ſum of ſpecie, the bills began to loſe their value. The depreciation continued in proportion to the ſums emitted, until ſeventy, and even one hundred and fifty nominal paper dollars, were hardly an equivalent for one Spaniſh milled dollar. Still from the year 1775 to 1781, this depreciating paper currency was almoſt the only medium of trade. It ſupplied the place of ſpecie, and enabled Congreſs to ſupport a numerous army; until the ſum in circulation amounted to two hundred millions of dollars. But about the year 1780, ſpecie began to be plentiful, being introduced by the French army, a private trade with the Spaniſh iſlands, and an illicit intercourſe with the Britiſh garriſon at New-York. This circumſtance accelerated the depreciation of the paper bills, until their full value had ſunk almoſt to nothing. In 1781, the merchants and brokers in the ſouthern ſtates, apprehenſive of the approaching fate of the currency, puſhed immenſe quantities of it ſuddenly into New-England—made vaſt purchaſes of goods in Boſton—and inſtantly the bills vaniſhed from circulation.

The whole hiſtory of this continental paper is a hiſtory of public and private frauds. Old ſpecie debts were often paid in a depreciated currency—and even new contracts, for a few weeks or days, were often diſcharged with a ſmall part of the value received. From this plenty and fluctuating ſtate of the medium, ſprung hoſts of ſpeculators and itinerant traders, who left their honeſt occupations for the proſpect of immenſe gains, in a fraudulent buſineſs, that depended on no fixed principles, and the profits of which could be reduced to no certain calculations.

To increaſe theſe evils, a project was formed to fix the prices of articles, and reſtrain perſons from giving or receiving more for any commodity than the price ſtated by authority. Theſe regulating acts were reprobated by every man acquainted with commerce and finance; as they were intended to prevent an effect without removing the cauſe. To attempt to fix the value of money, while ſtreams of bills were inceſſantly flowing from the treaſury of the United States, was as ridiculous as an attempt to reſtrain the riſing of water in rivers amidſt ſhowers of rain.

* *A Dollar, in Sterling money, is 4s. 6d. But the price of a Dollar roſe in New-England currency to 6s. in New York, to 8s. in New-Jerſey, Pennſylvania, and Maryland, to 7s. 6d.; in Virginia, to 6s. in North Carolina, to 8s. in South Carolina and Georgia, to 4s. 8d. This difference, originating between paper and ſpecie, or bills, continued afterwards to exiſt in the nominal eſtimation of gold and ſilver.* *Franklin's Miſcel. Works, p.* 217.

Notwithſtanding

Notwithſtanding all oppoſition, ſome ſtates framed and attempted to enforce theſe regulating acts. The effect was, a momentary apparent ſtand in the price of articles; innumerable acts of colluſion and evaſion among the diſhoneſt; numberleſs injuries done to the honeſt; and finally a total diſregard of all ſuch regulations, and the conſequential contempt of laws, and the authority of the magiſtrate.

During theſe fluctuations of buſineſs, occaſioned by the variable value of money, people loſt ſight, in ſome meaſure, of the ſteady principles which had before governed their intercourſe with each other. Speculations followed and relaxed the rigour of commercial obligations.

Induſtry likewiſe had ſuffered by the flood of money which had deluged the ſtates. The prices of produce had riſen in proportion to the quantity of money in circulation, and the demand for the commodities of the country. This made the acquiſition of money eaſy, and indolence and luxury, with their train of deſolating conſequences, ſpread themſelves among all deſcriptions of people.

But as ſoon as hoſtilities between Great-Britain and America were ſuſpended, the ſcene was changed. The bills emitted by Congreſs had long before ceaſed to circulate; and the ſpecie of the country was ſoon drained off to pay for foreign goods, the importations of which exceeded all calculation. Within two years from the cloſe of the war, *a ſcarcity of money* was the general cry. The merchants found it impoſſible to collect their debts, and make punctual remittances to their creditors in Great-Britain; and the conſumers were driven to the neceſſity of retrenching their ſuperfluities in living, and of returning to their ancient habits of induſtry and œconomy.

The change was however progreſſive and ſlow. In many of the ſtates which ſuffered by the numerous debts they had contracted, and by the diſtreſſes of war, the people called aloud for emiſſions of paper bills to ſupply the deficiency of a medium. The depreciation of the continental bills, was a recent example of the ill effects of ſuch an expedient, and the impoſſibility of ſupporting the credit of paper, was urged by the oppoſers of the meaſure as a ſubſtantial argument againſt adopting it. But nothing would ſilence the popular clamor; and many men of the firſt talents and eminence, united their voices with that of the populace. Paper money had formerly maintained its credit, and been of ſingular utility; and paſt experience, notwithſtanding a change of circumſtances, was an argument in its favor that bore down all oppoſition.

Pennſylvania, although one of the richeſt ſtates in the union, was the firſt to emit bills of credit, as a ſubſtitute for ſpecie. But the revolution had removed the neceſſity of it, at the ſame time that it had deſtroyed the means by which its former credit had been ſupported. Lands, at the cloſe of the war, were not riſing in value—bills on London could not ſo readily be purchaſed, as while the province was dependent on Great-Britain—the ſtate was ſplit into parties, one of which attempted to defeat the meaſures moſt popular with the other—and the depreciation of continental bills, with the injuries which it had done to individuals, inſpired a general diſtruſt of all public promiſes.

Notwithſtanding a part of the money was loaned on good landed ſecurity, and the faith of that wealthy ſtate pledged for the redemption of the

the whole at its nominal value, yet the advantages of ſpecie as a medium of commerce, eſpecially as an article of remittance to London, ſoon made a difference of ten per cent. between the bills of credit and ſpecie. This difference may be conſidered rather as an apppreciation of gold and ſilver, than a depreciation of paper: but its effects, in a commercial ſtate, muſt be highly prejudicial It opens the door to frauds of all kinds, and frauds are uſually practiſed on the honeſt and unſuſpecting, eſpecially upon all claſſes of labourers.

This currency of Pennſylvania is receivable in all payments at the cuſtom-houſe, and for certain taxes, at its nominal value; yet it has ſunk to two-thirds of this value, in the few commercial tranſactions where it is received.

North Carolina, South-Carolina, and Georgia had recourſe to the ſame wretched expedient to ſupply themſelves with money; not reflecting that induſtry, frugality, and good commercial laws are the only means of turning the balance of trade in favour of a country, and that this balance is the only permament ſource of ſolid wealth and ready money. But the bills they emitted ſhared a worſe fate than thoſe of Pennſylvania; they expelled almoſt all the circulating caſh from the ſtates; they loſt a great part of their nominal value, they impoveriſhed the merchants, and embarraſſed the planters.

The ſtate of Virginia had too much wiſdom to emit bills; but tolerated a practice among the inhabitants of cutting dollars and ſmaller pieces of ſilver, in order to prevent it from leaving the ſtate. This pernicious practice prevailed alſo in Georgia*.

Maryland eſcaped the calamity of a paper currency. The houſe of delegates brought forward a bill for the emiſſion of bills of credit to a large amount; but the ſenate firmly and ſucceſsfully reſiſted the pernicious ſcheme. The oppoſition between the two houſes was violent and tumultuous; it threatened the ſtate with anarchy; but the queſtion was carried to the people, and the good ſenſe of the ſenate finally prevailed.

New-Jerſey is ſituated between two of the largeſt commercial towns in America, and conſequently drained of ſpecie. This ſtate alſo emitted a large ſum in bills of credit, which ſerved to pay the intereſt of the public debt; but the currency depreciated, as in other ſtates.

Rhode-Iſland exhibits a melancholy proof of that licentiouſneſs and anarchy which always follows a relaxation of the moral principles. In a rage for ſupplying the ſtate with money, and filling every man's pocket without obliging him to earn it by his diligence, the legiſlature paſſed an act for making one hundred thouſand pounds in bills; a ſum much more than ſufficient for a medium of trade in that ſtate even without any ſpecie. The merchants in Newport and Providence oppoſed the act with firmneſs; their oppoſition added freſh vigor to the reſolution of the aſſembly, and induced them to enforce the ſcheme by a legal tender of a moſt extraordinary nature. They paſſed an act, ordaining that if any creditor ſhould refuſe to take their bills, for any debt whatever, the debtor might lodge the

* *A dollar was uſually cut in five pieces, and each paſſed by toll for a quarter; ſo that a man who cut it gained a quarter, or rather a fifth. If the ſtate ſhould re-coin this ſilver, it muſt loſe a fifth.*

the ſum due, with a juſtice of the peace, who ſhould give notice of it in the public papers; and if the creditor did not appear and receive the money within ſix months from the firſt notice, his debt ſhould be forfeited. This act aſtoniſhed all honeſt men; and even the promoters of paper-money-making in other ſtates, and on other principles, reprobated this act of Rhode-Iſland, as wicked and oppreſſive. But the ſtate was governed by faction. During the cry for paper money, a number of boiſterous ignorant men were elected into the legiſlature, from the ſmaller towns in the ſtate. Finding themſelves united with a majority in opinion, they formed and executed any plan their inclination ſuggeſted; they oppoſed every meaſure that was agreeable to the mercantile intereſt; they not only made bad laws to ſuit their own wicked purpoſes, but appointed their own corrupt creatures to fill the judicial and executive departments: Their money depreciated ſufficiently to anſwer all their vile purpoſes in the diſcharge of debts—buſineſs almoſt totally ceaſed, all confidence was loſt, the ſtate was thrown into confuſion at home, and was execrated abroad.

Maſſachuſetts Bay had the good fortune, amidſt her political calamities, to prevent an emiſſion of bills of credit. New Hampſhire made no paper; but in the diſtreſſes which followed her loſs of buſineſs after the war, the legiſlature made horſes, lumber, and moſt articles of produce a legal tender in the fulfilment of contracts. It is doubtleſs unjuſt to oblige a creditor to receive any thing for his debt, which he had not in contemplation at the time of the contract. But as the commodities which were to be a tender by the law of New Hampſhire, were of an intrinſic value, bearing ſome proportion to the amount of the debt, the injuſtice of the law was leſs flagrant, than that which enforced the tender of paper in Rhode-Iſland. Indeed a ſimilar law prevailed for ſome time in Maſſachuſetts; and in Connecticut it is a ſtanding law that a creditor ſhall take land on an execution, at a price to be fixed by three indifferent freeholders; provided other means of payment ſhall appear to ſatisfy the demand. In a ſtate that has but little foreign commerce, and but little money in circulation, ſuch a law may not only be tolerable; but, if people are ſatisfied with it, may produce good effects. It muſt not however be omitted, that while the moſt flouriſhing commercial ſtates introduced a paper medium, to the great injury of honeſt men, a bill for an emiſſion of paper in Connecticut, where there is very little ſpecie, could never command more than one-eighth of the votes of the legiſlature. The movers of the bill have hardly eſcaped ridicule; ſo generally is the meaſure reprobated as a ſource of frauds and public miſchief.

The legiſlature of New-York, a ſtate that had the leaſt neceſſity and apology for making paper money, as her commercial advantages always furniſh her with ſpecie ſufficient for a medium, iſſued a large ſum in bills of credit, which ſupport their value better than the currency of any other ſtate. Still the paper has raiſed the value of ſpecie, which is always in demand for exportation, and this difference of exchange between paper and ſpecie, expoſes commerce to moſt of the inconveniences reſulting from a depreciated medium.

Such is the hiſtory of paper money thus far; a miſerable ſubſtitute for real coin, in a country where the reins of government are too weak to compel

compel the fulfilment of public engagements; and where all confidence in public faith is totally deſtroyed.

While the ſtates were thus endeavouring to repair the loſs of ſpecie by empty promiſes, and to ſupport their buſineſs by ſhadows, rather than by reality, the Britiſh miniſtry formed ſome commercial regulations that deprived them of the profits of their trade to the Weſt-Indies and to Great-Britain. Heavy duties were laid upon ſuch articles as were remitted to the London merchants for their goods, and ſuch were the duties upon American bottoms, that the ſtates were almoſt wholly deprived of the carrying trade. A prohibition, as has been mentioned, was laid upon the produce of the United States, ſhipped to the Engliſh Weſt India Iſlands in American built veſſels, and in thoſe manned by American ſeamen. Theſe reſtrictions fell heavy upon the eaſtern ſtates, which depended much upon ſhipbuilding for the ſupport of their trade; and they materially injured the buſineſs of the other ſtates.

Without a union that was able to form and execute a general ſyſtem of commercial regulations, ſome of the ſtates attempted to impoſe reſtraints upon the Britiſh trade that ſhould indemnify the merchant for the loſſes he had ſuffered, or induce the Britiſh miniſtry to enter into a commercial treaty and relax the rigor of their navigation laws. Theſe meaſures however produced nothing but miſchief. The ſtates did not act in concert, and the reſtraints ſaid on the trade of one ſtate operated to throw the buſineſs into the hands of its neighbour. Maſſachuſetts, in her zeal to counteract the effect of the Engliſh navigation laws, laid enormons duties upon Britiſh goods imported into that ſtate; but the other ſtates did not adopt a ſimilar meaſure; and the loſs of buſineſs ſoon obliged that ſtate to repeal or ſuſpend the law. Thus when Pennſylvania laid heavy duties on Britiſh goods, Delaware and New-Jerſey made a number of free ports to encourage the landing of goods within the limits of thoſe ſtates; and the duties in Pennſylvania ſerved no purpoſe, but to create ſmuggling.

Thus divided, the ſtates began to feel their weakneſs. Moſt of the legiſlatures had neglected to comply with the requiſitions of Congreſs for furniſhing the federal of treaſury; the reſolves of Congreſs were diſregarded; the propoſition for a general impoſt to be laid and collected by Congreſs was negatived firſt by Rhode-Iſland, and afterwards by New-York. The Britiſh troops continued, under pretence of a breach of treaty on the part of America, to hold poſſeſſion of the forts on the frontiers of the ſtates, and thus commanded the fur-trade. Many of the ſtates individually were infeſted with popular commotions or iniquitous tender laws, while they were oppreſſed with public debts; the certificates or public notes had loſt moſt of their value, and circulated merely as the objects of ſpeculation; Congreſs loſt their reſpectability, and the United States their credit and importance.

In the midſt of theſe calamities, a propoſition was made in 1785, in the houſe of delegates in Virginia, to appoint commiſſioners, to meet ſuch as might be appointed in the other ſtates, who ſhould form a ſyſtem of commercial regulations for the United States, and recommend it to the ſeveral legiſlatures for adoption. Commiſſioners were accordingly appointed, and a requeſt was made to the legiſlatures of the other ſtates to accede to the propoſition. Accordingly ſeveral of the ſtates appointed commiſſioners who met at Annapolis in the ſummer of 1786, to conſult what meaſures

ſures ſhould be taken to unite the ſtates in ſome general and efficient commercial ſyſtem. But as the ſtates were not all repreſented, and the powers of the commiſſioners were, in their opinion, too limited to propoſe a ſyſtem of regulations adequate to the purpoſes of government, they agreed to recommend a general convention to be held at Philadelphia the next year, with powers to frame a general plan of government for the United States. This meaſure appeared to the commiſſioners abſolutely neceſſary. The old confederation was eſſentially defective. It was deſtitute of almoſt every principle neceſſary to give effect to legiſlation.

It was defective in the article of legiſlating over ſtates, inſtead of individuals. All hiſtory teſtifies that recommendations will not operate as laws, and compulſion cannot be exerciſed over ſtates, without violence, war, and anarchy. The confederation was alſo deſtitute of a ſanction to its laws. When reſolutions were paſſed in Congreſs, there was no power to compel obedience by fine, by ſuſpenſion of privileges, or other means. It was alſo deſtitute of a guarantee for the ſtate governments. Had one ſtate been invaded by its neighbour, the union was not conſtitutionally bound to aſſiſt in repelling the invaſion, and ſupporting the conſtitution of the invaded ſtate. The confederation was further deficient in the principle of apportioning the quotas of money to be furniſhed by each ſtate; in a want of power to form commercial laws, and to raiſe troops for the defence and ſecurity of the union; in the equal ſuffrage of the ſtates, which placed Rhode-Iſland on a footing in Congreſs with Virginia; and to crown all the defects, we may add the want of a judiciary power, to define the laws of the union, and to reconcile the contradictory deciſions of a number of independent judicatories.

Theſe and many inferior defects were obvious to the commiſſioners, and therefore they urged a general convention, with powers to form and offer to the conſideration of the ſtates, a ſyſtem of general government that ſhould be leſs exceptionable. Accordingly in May, 1787, delegates from all the ſtates, except Rhode-Iſland, aſſembled at Philadelphia; and choſe General Waſhington for their preſident. After four months deliberation, in which the claſhing intereſts of ſeveral ſtates appeared in all their full force, the convention agreed to recommend the plan of federal government which we have already recited.

As ſoon as the plan of the federal conſtitution was ſubmitted to the legiſlatures of the ſeveral ſtates, they proceeded to take meaſures for collecting the ſenſe of the people upon the propriety of adopting it. In the ſmall ſtate of Delaware, a convention was called in November, which after a few days deliberation, ratified the conſtitution, without a diſſenting voice.

In the convention of Pennſylvania, held the ſame month, there was a ſpirited oppoſition to the new form of government. The debates were long and intereſting. Great abilities and firmneſs were diſplayed on both ſides; but, on the 13th of December, the conſtitution was received by two-thirds of the members. The minority were diſſatisfied, and with an obſtinacy that ill became the repreſentatives of a free people, publiſhed their reaſons of diſſent, which were calculated to inflame a party already violent, and which, in fact, produced ſome diſturbances in the weſtern parts of the ſtate. But the oppoſition has ſince gradually ſubſided.

In

In New-Jerſey, the convention which met in December were unanimous in adopting the conſtitution; as was likewiſe that of Georgia.

In Connecticut there was ſome oppoſition; but the conſtitution was, on the 9th of January, 1788, ratified by three-fourths of the votes in convention, and the minority peaceably acquieſced in the deciſion.

In Maſſachuſetts, the oppoſition was large and reſpectable. The convention, conſiſting of more than three hundred delegates, were aſſembled in January, and continued their debates, with great candor and liberality, about five weeks. At length the queſtion was carried for the conſtitution by a ſmall majority, and the minority, with that manly condeſcenſion which becomes great minds, ſubmitted to the meaſure, and united to ſupport the government.

In New-Hampſhire, the federal cauſe was, for ſome time, doubtful. The greateſt number of the delegates in convention were at firſt on the ſide of the oppoſition; and ſome, who might have had their objections removed by the diſcuſſion of the ſubject, inſtructed to reject the conſtitution. Although the inſtructions of conſtituents cannot, on the true principles of repreſentation, be binding upon a deputy, in any legiſlative aſſembly, becauſe his conſtituents are but a *part* of the ſtate, and have not heard the arguments and objections of the *whole*, whereas his act is to affect the *whole* ſtate, and therefore is to be directed by the ſenſe or wiſdom of the whole, collected in the legiſlative aſſembly; yet the delegates in the New-Hampſhire convention conceived, very erroneouſly, that the ſenſe of the freemen in the towns, thoſe little diſtricts where no act of legiſlation can be performed, impoſed a reſtraint upon their own wills *. An adjournment was therefore moved and carried. This gave the people an opportunity to gain a farther knowledge of the merits of the conſtitution, and at the ſecond meeting of the convention, it was ratified by a reſpectable majority.

In Maryland, ſeveral men of abilities appeared in the oppoſition, and were unremitted in their endeavours to perſuade the people, that the propoſed plan of government was artfully calculated to deprive them of their deareſt rights; yet in convention it appeared that five-ſixths of the voices were in favour of it.

In South-Carolina, the oppoſition was reſpectable; but two-thirds of the convention appeared to advocate and vote for the conſtitution.

In Virginia, many of the principal characters oppoſed the ratification of the conſtitution with great abilities and induſtry. But after a full diſcuſſion of the ſubject, a ſmall majority, of a numerous convention, appeared for its adoption.

In New-York, two-thirds of the delegates in convention were, at their firſt meeting, determined to reject the conſtitution. Here therefore the debates were the moſt intereſting, and the event extremely doubtful. The argument was managed with uncommon addreſs and abilities on both ſides of the queſtion. But during the ſeſſion, the ninth and tenth ſtates had acceded to the propoſed plan, ſo that by the conſtitution, Congreſs were empowered to iſſue an ordinance for organizing the new government. This event placed the oppoſition on new ground; and the expediency of

* *This pernicious opinion has prevailed in all the ſtates, and done infinite miſchief.*

uniting

uniting with the other ſtates—the generous motives of conciliating all differences, and the danger of a rejection, influenced a reſpectable number, who were originally oppoſed to the conſtitution, to join the federal intereſt. The conſtitution was accordingly ratified by a ſmall majority; but the ratification was accompanied here, as in Virginia, with a bill of rights, declaratory of the ſenſe of the convention, as to certain great principles, and with a catalogue of amendments, which were to be recommended to the conſideration of the new congreſs, and the ſeveral ſtate legiſlatures.

North Carolina met in convention in July, to deliberate on the new conſtitution. After a ſhort ſeſſion they rejected it, by a majority of one hundred and ſeventy-ſix againſt ſeventy-ſix. This is the firſt ſtate that has, in a formal manner, rejected the conſtitution. Upon what principle they did it, it is difficult to tell, and delicate to conjecture. The miſeries that will probably ariſe from their ſeparation from the union, and their internal diviſions, may eventually occaſion a reconſideration. It is certain that their rejection of the new plan of government, will have no effect in impeding its organization and eſtabliſhment between the ratifying ſtates.

Rhode-Iſland was doomed to be the ſport of a blind and ſingular policy. The legiſlature, in conſiſtency with the meaſures which had been before purſued, did not call a convention, to collect the ſenſe of the ſtate upon the propoſed conſtitution; but in an unconſtitutional and abſurd manner, ſubmitted the plan of government to the conſideration of the people. Accordingly it was brought before town-meetings, and in moſt of them rejected. In ſome of the large towns, particularly in Newport and Providence, the people collected and reſolved, with great propriety, that they could not take up the ſubject; and that the propoſition for embracing or rejecting the federal conſtitution, could come before no tribunal but that of the *State* in convention or legiſlature.

It is hoped that the very reſpectable minority, who have ever ſtrenuouſly oppoſed the proceedings of the infatuated majority, will, by their prudent and perſevering exertions, effect the ſalvation of the ſtate. New-York rejected the proceedings of the firſt Congreſs, and Georgia refuſed to ſend delegates; yet in two years after they were both among the foremoſt in ſupporting our independence. In two years North-Carolina and Rhode-Iſland may be as warmly engaged in ſupporting, as they are now in oppoſing the conſtitution. If we may judge from their preſent ſituations, they have more need of an efficient government than any ſtate in the union.

From the moment the proceedings of the general convention at Philadelphia tranſpired, the public mind was exceedingly agitated, and ſuſpended between hope and fear, until nine ſtates had ratified their plan of a federal government. Indeed the anxiety continued until Virginia and New-York had acceded to the ſyſtem. But this did not prevent the demonſtrations of their joy, on the acceſſion of each ſtate.

On the ratification in Maſſachuſetts, the citizens of Boſton, in the elevation of their joy, formed a proceſſion in honour of the happy event, which was novel, ſplendid and magnificent. This example was afterwards followed, and in ſome inſtances improved upon, in Baltimore. Charleſton, Philadelphia,

Philadelphia, New-Haven, Portſmouth and New-York ſucceſſively. Nothing could equal the beauty and grandeur of theſe exhibitions. A ſhip was mounted upon wheels, and drawn through the ſtreets; mechanics erected ſtages, and exhibited ſpecimens of labour in their ſeveral occupations, as they moved along the road; flags with emblems, deſcriptive of all the arts and of the federal union, were invented and diſplayed in honour of the government; multitudes of all ranks in life aſſembled to view the majeſtic ſcenes; while ſobriety, joy and harmony marked the brilliant exhibitions, by which the Americans celebrated the eſtabliſhment of their Empire.

NOTES.

NOTE (A) for Page 104.

NOTWITSTANDING it has often been aſſerted with confidence, that General Waſhington was a native of England, certain it is his anceſtors came from thence to this country ſo long ago as the year 1657. He, in the third deſcent after their migration, was born on the 11th of February, (old ſtile) 1732, at the pariſh of Waſhington, in Weſtmoreland county, in Virginia. His father's family was numerous, and he was the firſt fruit of a ſecond marriage. His education having been principally conducted by a private tutor, at fifteen years old he was entered a midſhipman on board of a Britiſh veſſel of war ſtationed on the coaſt of Virginia, and his baggage prepared for embarkation: but the plan was abandoned on account of the reluctance his mother expreſſed to his engaging in that profeſſion.

Previous to this tranſaction, when he was but ten years of age, his father died, and the charge of the family devolved on his eldeſt brother. His eldeſt brother, a young man of the moſt promiſing talents, had a command in the colonial troops employed againſt Carthagena, and on his return from the expedition, named his new patrimonial manſion MOUNT VERNON, in honour of the admiral of that name, from whom he had received many civilities. He was afterwards made adjutant-general of the militia of Virginia, but did not long ſurvive. At his deceaſe (notwithſtanding there are heirs of an elder branch who poſſeſs a large moiety of the paternal inheritance) the eldeſt ſon by the ſecond marriage inherited this ſeat and a conſiderable landed property. In conſequence of the extenſive limits of the colony, the vacant office of adjutant-general was divided into three diſtricts, and the *future Hero of America*, before he attained his twentieth year, began his military ſervice by a principal appointment in that department, with the rank of major.

When he was little more than twenty-one years of age, an event occurred which called his abilities into public notice. In 1753, while the government of the colony was adminiſtered by lieutenant-governor Dinwiddie, encroachments were reported to have been made by the French, from Canada, on the territories of the Britiſh colonies, at the weſtward. Young Mr. Waſhington, who was ſent with plenary powers to aſcertain the facts, treat with the ſavages, and warn the French to deſiſt from their aggreſſions, performed the duties of his miſſion with ſingular induſtry, intelligence and

and addreſs. His journal, and report to Governor Dinwiddie, which were publiſhed, announced to the world that correctneſs of mind, manlineſs in ſtile, and accuracy in the mode of doing buſineſs, which have ſince characteriſed him in the conduct of more arduous affairs. But it was deemed, by ſome, an extraordinary circumſtance that ſo juvenile and inexperienced a perſon ſhould have been employed on a negociation, with which ſubjects of the greateſt importance were involved: ſubjects which ſhortly after became the origin of a war between England and France, that raged for many years throughout every part of the globe.

As the troubles ſtill ſubſiſted on the frontiers, the colony of Virginia raiſed the next year a regiment of troops for their defence. Of this corps, Mr. Fry, one of the profeſſors of the college, was appointed Colonel, and Major Waſhington received the commiſſion of Lieutenant-Colonel. But Colonel Fry died the ſame ſummer, without ever having joined; and of courſe left his regiment and rank to the ſecond in command. Colonel Waſhington made indefatigable efforts to form the regiment, eſtabliſh magazines, and open roads ſo as to pre-occupy the advantageous poſt at the confluence of the Allegany and Monongahela rivers, which he had recommended for that purpoſe in his report the preceding year. He was to have been joined by a detachment of independent regulars from the ſouthern colonies, together with ſome companies of provincials from North-Carolina and Maryland. But he perceived the neceſſity of expedition, and without waiting for their arrival, commenced his march in the month of May. Notwithſtanding his precipitated advance, on his aſcending the Laurel-hill, fifty miles ſhort of his object, he was adviſed that a body of French had already taken poſſeſſion and erected a fortification, which they named Fort *du Quiſne*. He then fell back to a place known by the appellation of *the Great Meadows*, for the ſake of forage and ſupplies. Here he built a temporary ſtockade, merely to cover his ſtores; it was from its fate called Fort *Neceſſity*. His force, when joined by Captain M'Kay's regulars, did not amount to four hundred effectives. Upon receiving information from his ſcouts that a conſiderable party was approaching to reconnoitre his poſt, he fallied and defeated them. But in return he was attacked by an army, computed to have been fifteen hundred ſtrong, and after a gallant defence, in which more than one-third of his men were killed and wounded, was forced to capitulate. The garriſon marched out with the honours of war, but were plundered by the Indians, in violation of the articles of capitulation. After this diſaſter, the remains of the Virginia regiment returned to Alexandria, to be recruited and furniſhed with neceſſary ſupplies.

In the year 1755, the Britiſh government ſent to this country General Braddock, who, by the junction of two veteran regiments from Ireland, with the independent and provincial corps in America, was to repel the French from the confines of the Engliſh ſettlements. Upon a royal arrangement of rank, by which "no officer who did not *immediately* derive his commiſſion from the king, could command one who did," Col. Waſhington relinquiſhed his regiment, and went as an extra aid-de-camp into the family of General Braddock. In this capacity, at the battle of Monongahela he attended that general, whoſe life was gallantly ſacrificed in attempting to extricate his troops from the fatal ambuſcade into which

which his over-weening confidence had conducted them. Braddock had several horses shot under him, before he fell himself; and there was not an officer, whose duty obliged him to be on horseback that day, excepting Colonel Washington, who was not either killed or wounded. This circumstance enabled him to display greater abilities in covering the retreat, and saving the wreck of the army, than he could otherwise have done. As soon as he had secured their passage over the ford of the Monongahela, and found they were not pursued, he hastened to concert measures for their further security with Colonel Dunbar, who had remained with the second division and heavy baggage at some distance in the rear. To effect this he travelled with two guides all night, through an almost impervious wilderness, notwithstanding the fatigues he had undergone in the day, and notwithstanding he had so imperfectly recovered from sickness, that he was obliged in the morning to be supported with cushions on his horse. The public accounts in England and America were not parsimonious of applause for the essential service he had rendered on so trying an occasion.

Not long after this time, the regulation of rank, which had been so injurious to the colonial officers, was changed to their satisfaction, in consequence of the discontent of the officers and the remonstrance of Colonel Washington; and the supreme authority of Virginia, impressed with a due sense of his merits, gave him, in a new and extensive commission, the command of all troops raised and to be raised in that colony.

It would not comport with the intended brevity of this sketch, to mention in detail the plans he suggested, or the system he pursued for defending the frontiers, till the year 1758, when he commanded the van brigade of General Forbes's army in the capture of Fort Du Quesne. A similar reason will preclude the recital of the personal hazards and atchievements which happened in the course of his service. The tranquillity on the frontiers of the middle colonies having been restored by the success of this campaign, and the health of Colonel Washington having become extremely debilitated by an inveterate pulmonary complaint, in 1759 he resigned his military appointment. Authentic documents are not wanting to shew the tender regret which the Virginia line expressed at parting with their commander, and the affectionate regard which he entertained for them.

His health was gradually re-established. He married Mrs. Custis*, a handsome and amiable young widow, possessed of an ample jointure, and settled as a planter and farmer on the estate where he now resides in Fairfax county. After some years he gave up planting tobacco, and went altogether into the farming business. He had raised seven thousand bushels of wheat, and ten thousand of Indian corn in one year. Although he has confined his own cultivation to this domestic tract of about nine thousand acres, yet he possesses excellent lands in large quantities, in several other counties. His judgment in the quality of soils, his command of money to avail himself of purchases, and his occasional employment in early life as a surveyor, gave him opportunities of making advantageous locations, many of which are improved.

After he left the army, until the year 1775, he thus cultivated the arts of peace. He was constantly a member of assembly, a magistrate of his

* *General and Mrs. Washington were both born in the same year.*

county, and a judge of the court. He was elected a delegate to the firſt congreſs in 1774, as well as to that which aſſembled in the year following. Soon after the war broke out, he was appointed by Congreſs commander in chief of the forces of the United Colonies.

It is the leſs neceſſary to particularize, in this place, his tranſactions in the courſe of the late war, becauſe the impreſſion which they made is yet freſh in every mind. But it is hoped poſterity will be taught in what manner he transformed an undiſciplined body of peaſantry into a regular army of ſoldiers. Commentaries on his campaigns would undoubtedly be highly intereſting and inſtructive to future generations. The conduct of the firſt campaign, in compelling the Britiſh troops to abandon Boſton by a bloodleſs victory, will merit a minute narration. But a volume would ſcarcely contain the mortifications he experienced, and the hazards to which he was expoſed in 1776 and 1777, in contending againſt the proweſs of Britain, with an inadequate force. His good deſtiny and conſummate prudence prevented want of ſucceſs from producing want of confidence on the part of the public; for want of ſucceſs is apt to lead to the adoption of pernicious counſels, through the levity of the people or the ambition of their demagogues. Shortly after this period, ſprang up the only cabal that ever exiſted during his public life, to rob him of his reputation and command. It proved as impotent in effect, as it was audacious in deſign. In the three ſucceeding years the germ of diſcipline unfolded; and the reſources of America having been called into co-operation with the land and naval armies of France, produced the glorious concluſion of the campaign in 1781. From this time the gloom began to diſappear from our political horizon, and the affairs of the union proceeded in a meliorating train, until a peace was moſt ably negociated by our ambaſſadors in Europe, in 1783.

No perſon, who had not the advantage of being preſent when General Waſhington received the intelligence of peace, and who did not accompany him to his domeſtic retirement, can deſcribe the relief which that joyful event brought to his labouring mind, or the ſupreme ſatisfaction with which he withdrew to private life. From his triumphal entry into New-York, upon the evacuation of that city by the Britiſh army, to his arrival at Mount Vernon, after the reſignation of his commiſſion to congreſs, feſtive crouds impeded his paſſage through all the populous towns, the devotion of a whole people purſued him with prayers to heaven for bleſſings on his head, while their gratitude ſought the moſt expreſſive language of manifeſting itſelf to him, as their common father and benefactor. When he became a private citizen, he had the unuſual felicity to find that his native ſtate was among the moſt zealous in doing juſtice to his merits; and that ſtronger demonſtrations of affectionate eſteem (if poſſible) were given by the citizens of his neighbourhood, than by any other deſcription of men on the continent. But he has conſtantly declined accepting any compenſation for his ſervices, or proviſion for the augmented expences which have been incurred by him in conſequence of his public employment, although propoſals have been made in the moſt delicate manner, particularly by the ſtates of Virginia and Pennſylvania.

The virtuous ſimplicity which diſtinguiſhes the private life of General Waſhington, though leſs known than the dazzling ſplendor of his military

tary atchievements, is not less edifying in example, or worthy the attention of his countrymen. The conspicious character he has acted on the theatre of human affairs, the uniform dignity with which he sustained his part amidst difficulties of the most discouraging nature, and the glory of having arrived through them at the hour of triumph, have made many official and literary persons, on both sides of the ocean, ambitious of a correspondence with him. These correspondencies unavoidably engross a great portion of his time; and the communications contained in them, combined with the numerous periodical publications and newspapers which he peruses, render him, as it were, the *focus of political intelligence for the new world.* Nor are his conversations with well-informed men less conducive to bring him acquainted with the various events which happen in different countries of the globe. Every foreigner of distinction, who travels in America, makes it a point to visit him. Members of Congress, and other dignified persons, do not pass his house, without calling to pay their respects. As another source of information it may be mentioned, that many literary productions are sent to him annually by their authors in Europe; and that there is scarcely one work written in America on any art, science, or subject, which does not seek his protection, or which is not offered to him as a token of gratitude. Mechanical inventions are frequently submitted to him for his approbation, and natural curiosities presented for his investigation. But the multiplicity of epistolary applications, often on the remains of some business which happened when he was commander in chief, sometimes on subjects foreign to his situation, frivolous in their nature, and intended merely to gratify the vanity of the writers by drawing answers from him, is truly distressing, and almost incredible. His benignity in answering, perhaps, increases the number. Did he not husband every moment to the best advantage, it would not be in his power to notice the vast variety of subjects that claim his attention. Here a minuter description of his domestic life may be expected.

To apply a life, at best but short, to the most useful purposes, he lives, as he ever has done, in the unvarying habits of regularity, temperance and industry. He rises, in winter as well as summer, at the dawn of day; and generally reads or writes some time before breakfast. He breakfasts about seven o'clock, on three small Indian hoe-cakes and as many dishes of tea. He rides immediately to his different farms, and remains with his labourers until a little past two o'clock, when he returns and dresses. At three he dines, commonly on a single dish, and drinks from half a pint to a pint of Madeira wine. This, with one small glass of punch, a draught of beer, and two dishes of tea (which he takes half an hour before sun-setting) constitutes his whole sustenance until the next day. Whether there be a company or not, the table is always prepared by its elegance and exuberance for their reception; and the general remains at it for an hour after dinner, in familiar conversation and convivial hilarity. It is then that every one present is called upon to give some absent friend as a toast; the name not unfrequently awakens a pleasing remembrance of past events, and gives a new turn to the animated colloquy. General Washington is more chearful than he was in the army. Although his temper is rather of a serious cast, and his countenance commonly carries the impression of thoughtfulness, yet

he perfectly reliſhes a pleaſant ſtory, an unaffected ſally of wit, or a burleſque deſcription which ſurpriſes by its ſuddenneſs and incongruity with the ordinary appearance of the object deſcribed. After this ſociable and innocent relaxation, he applies himſelf to buſineſs, and about nine o'clock retires to reſt. This is the *rotine*, and this the hour he obſerves, when no one but his family is preſent; at other times he attends politely upon his company until they wiſh to withdraw. Notwithſtanding he has no offſpring, his actual family conſiſts of eight perſons*. It is ſeldom alone. He keeps a pack of hounds, and in the ſeaſon indulges himſelf with hunting once a week; at which diverſion the gentlemen of Alexandria often aſſiſt.

AGRICULTURE is the favourite employment of General Waſhington, in which he wiſhes to paſs the remainder of his days. To acquire and communicate practical knowlege, he correſponds with Mr. Arthur Young, who has written ſo ſenſibly on the ſubject, and alſo with many agricultural gentlemen in America. As improvement is known to be his paſſion, he receives envoys with rare ſeeds and reſults of new projects from every quarter. He likewiſe makes copious notes, relative to his own experiments, the ſtate of the ſeaſons, the nature of ſoils, the effects of different kinds of manure, and ſuch other topics as may throw light on the farming buſineſs.

On Saturday in the afternoon, every week, reports are made by all his overſeers, and regiſtered in books kept for the purpoſe; ſo that at the end of the year, the quantity of labour and produce may be accurately known. Order and œconomy are eſtabliſhed in all the departments within and without doors. His lands are incloſed in lots of equal dimenſions, and crops are aſſigned to each for many years. Every thing is undertaken on a great ſcale; but with a view to introduce or augment the culture of ſuch articles as he conceives will become moſt beneficial in their conſequence to the country. He has, the laſt year, raiſed two hundred lambs, ſowed twenty-ſeven buſhels of flax-ſeed, and planted more than ſeven hundred buſhels of potatoes. In the mean time, the public may reſt perſuaded that there is manufactured, under his roof, linen and woollen-cloth, nearly or quite ſufficient for the uſe of his numerous houſehold.

NOTE (B) for Page 105.

GENERAL Montgomery deſcended from a reſpectable family in the north of Ireland, and was born in the year 1737. His attachment to liberty was innate, and matured by a fine education and an excellent underſtanding. Having married a wife, and purchaſed an eſtate in New-York, he was from theſe circumſtances, as well as from his natural

* *The family of* General Waſhington, *in addition to the General, and his Lady, conſiſts of* Major George Waſhington, *(Nephew to the Genera', and late Aid de Camp to the Marquis de la Fayette) with his wife, who is a niece to the General's Lady*—Col. Humpreys, *formerly Aid de Camp to the General*—Mr. Lear, *a gentleman of liberal education, private ſecretary to the General—and two Grandchildren of Mrs. Waſhington's*

love

love of freedom, and from a conviction of the juſtneſs of her cauſe, induced to conſider himſelf as an American. From principle, he early embarked, in her cauſe, and quitted the ſweets of eaſy fortune, the enjoyment of a loved and philoſophical rural life, with the higheſt domeſtic felicity, to take an active ſhare in all the hardſhips and dangers that attend the ſoldier's life.

Before he came over to America, he had been an officer in the ſervice of England, and had ſucceſsfully fought her battles with the immortal Wolfe at Quebec, in the war of 1756, on the very ſpot, where, when fighting under the ſtandard of freedom, he was doomed to fall in arms againſt her. No one who fell a martyr to freedom in this unnatural conteſt, was more ſincerely, or more univerſally lamented. And what is extraordinary, the moſt eminent ſpeakers in the Britiſh Parliament, forgetting for the moment, that he had died in oppoſing their cruel and oppreſſive meaſures, diſplayed all their eloquence in praiſing his virtues, and lamenting his fate. A great orator, and a veteran fellow-ſoldier of his in the French war of 1756, ſhed abundance of tears, while he expatiated on their faſt friendſhip and mutual exchange of tender ſervices in that ſeaſon of enterprize and glory.

All enmity to this veteran ſoldier expired with his life; and reſpect to his private character prevailed over all other conſiderations. By the orders of General Carleton, his dead body received every poſſible mark of diſtinction from the victors, and was interred in Quebec, on the firſt day of January 1776, with all the honors due to a brave ſoldier.

Congreſs were not unmindful of the merit of this amiable and brave officer, nor remiſs in manifeſting the eſteem and reſpect they entertained for his memory. Conſidering it not only as a tribute of gratitude juſtly due to the memory of thoſe who have peculiarly diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the glorious cauſe of liberty, to perpetuate their names by the moſt durable monuments erected to their honor, but greatly conducive to inſpire poſterity with emulation of their illuſtrious actions, that honourable body.

"*Reſolved*, That to expreſs the veneration of the United Colonies for their late General, RICHARD MONTGOMERY, and the deep ſenſe they entertain of the many ſignal and important ſervices of that gallant officer, who after a ſeries of ſucceſſes, amidſt the moſt diſcouraging difficulties, fell at length in a gallant attack upon Quebec, the capital of Canada; and to tranſmit to future ages, as examples truly worthy of imitation, his patriotiſm, conduct, boldneſs of enterprize, inſuperable perſeverance, and contempt of danger and death; a monument be procured from Paris, or other part of France, with an inſcription ſacred to his memory, and expreſſive of his amiable character, and heroic atchievements, and that the continental treaſurers be directed to advance a ſum not exceeding 300l. ſterling, to Dr. Benjamin Franklin, who is deſired to ſee this reſolution properly executed, for defraying the expence thereof."

This reſolve was carried into execution at Paris, by that ingenious artiſt, Mr. Caffiers, ſculptor to the king of France, under the directions of Dr. Franklin. The monument is of white marble, of the moſt beautiful ſimplicity, and inexpreſſible elegance, with emblematical devices, and the following truly claſſical inſcription, worthy of the modeſt, but great mind of a Franklin.

To

TO THE GLORY OF
RICHARD MONTGOMERY, Major-General
of the armies of the United Sates of America,
Slain at the ſiege of Quebec,
the 31ſt of December, 1775, aged 38 years.

This elegant monument has lately ben erected in front of St. Paul's church in New-York.

There is a remarkable circumſtance connected with the fall of his brave officer, that merits to be recorded, becauſe the fact is of a very intereſting nature, and will ſerve to perpetuate the memory of a very amiable and deſerving character, who was alſo a martyr in the cauſe of his country. The circumſtance is this:

One of General Montgomery's Aides de Camp, was Mr. Macpherſon, a moſt promiſing young man, whoſe father reſided at Philadelphia, and was greatly diſtinguiſhed in privateering in the war of 1756. This gentleman had a brother in the 16th regiment in the Britiſh ſervice, at the time of Montgomery's expedition into Canada, and who was as violent in favour of the Engliſh government, as this General's Aid de Camp was enthuſiaſtic in the cauſe of America; the latter had accompanied his General a day or two previous to the attack in which they both loſt their lives, to view and meditate on the ſpot where Wolfe had fallen; on his return he found a letter from his brother, the Engliſh officer, full of the bittereſt reproaches againſt him, for having entered into the American ſervice, and containing a pretty direct wiſh, that if he would not abandon it, he might meet with the deſerved fate of a rebel. The Aid de Camp immediately returned him an anſwer, full of ſtrong reaſoning in defence of his conduct, but by no means attempting to ſhake the oppoſite principles of his brother, and not only free from acrimony, but full of expreſſions of tenderneſs and affection; this letter he dated, "from the ſpot where Wolfe loſt his life, in fighting the cauſe of England, *in friendſhip with America.*" This letter had ſcarcely reached the officer at New-York, before it was followed by the news of his brother's death. The effect was inſtantaneous, nature, and perhaps reaſon prevailed; a thouſand, not unworthy ſentiments, ruſhed upon his diſtreſſed mind; he quitted the Engliſh ſervice, entered into that of America, and ſought every occaſion of diſtinguiſhing himſelf in its ſervice!

NOTE (C) for Page 111.

GENERAL GREENE was born at Warwick in the ſtate of Rhode-Iſland, about the year 1741, of reſpectable parents, belonging to the Society of *Friends*. He was endowed with an uncommon degree of judgment and penetration, his diſpoſition was benevolent, and his manners affable. At an early period of life, he was choſen a member of the aſſembly, and he diſcharged his truſt to the entire ſatisfaction of his conſtituents.

After the battle of Lexington, three regiments of troops were raiſed in Rhode-Iſland, and the command of them given to Mr. Greene, who was nominated

nominated a Brigadier General. His merit and abilities both in council and in the field, were ſoon noticed by General Waſhington, and in Auguſt 1776, he was appointed Major-General. In the ſurpriſe at Trenton, and the battle of Princeton, General Greene diſtinguiſhed himſelf; and in the action of Germantown, in 1777, he commanded the left wing of the American army, where he exerted himſelf to retrieve the fortune of the day.

At the battle of Brandywine, General Greene diſtinguiſhed himſelf by ſupporting the right wing of the American army, when it gave way, and judiciouſly covering the whole, when routed and retreating in confuſion; and their ſafety from utter ruin, was generally aſcribed to his ſkill and directions, which were ſeconded by the troops under his command.

In March, 1778, he was appointed Quarter-maſter General, an office he accepted on condition of not loſing his rank in the line, and his right to command in action according to his ſeniority. In the execution of this office, he fully anſwered the expectations formed of his abilities; and enabled the army to move with additional celerity and vigour.

At the battle of Monmouth, the commander in chief, diſguſted with the behaviour of General Lee, depoſed him in the field of battle, and appointed General Greene to command the right wing, where he greatly contributed to retrieve the errors of his predeceſſor, and to the ſubſequent event of the day.

He ſerved under General Sullivan in the attack on the Britiſh Garriſon at Rhode-Iſland, where his prudence and abilities were diſplayed in ſecuring the retreating army.

In 1780 he was appointed to the command of the ſouthern army, which was much reduced by a ſeries of ill fortune. By his amazing diligence, addreſs and fortitude, he ſoon collected a reſpectable force, and revived the hopes of our ſouthern brethren.

Under his management, General Morgan gained a complete victory over Colonel Tarleton. He attacked Lord Cornwallis at Guildford, in North-Carolina, and although defeated, he checked the progreſs, and diſabled the army of the Britiſh General. A ſimilar fate attended Lord Rawdon, who gained an advantage over him at Camden.

His action with the Britiſh troops at Eutaw Springs was one of the beſt conducted, and moſt ſucceſsful engagements that took place during the war. For this General Greene was honored by Congreſs with a Britiſh ſtandard and a gold medal. As a reward for his particular ſervices in the ſouthern department, the ſtate of Georgia preſented him with a large and valuable tract of land on an iſland near Savannah.

After the war, he returned to his native ſtate; the contentions and bad policy of that ſtate, induced him to leave it, and retire to his eſtate in Georgia.

He removed his family in October 1785; but in June the next ſummer the extreme heat, and the fatigue of a walk, brought on a diſorder that put a period to his life, on the 19th of the ſame month. He lived univerſally loved and reſpected, and his death was univerſally lamented.

His body was interred in Savannah, and the funeral proceſſion attended by the Cincinnati.

Immediately

Immediately after the interment of the corpſe, the members of the Cincinnati held a meeting in Savannah, and reſolved, "That in token of the high reſpect and veneration in which the ſociety hold the memory of their late illuſtrious brother, Major-General Greene, deceaſed, George Waſhington Greene, his eldeſt ſon, be admitted a member of this ſociety, to take his ſeat on his arriving at the age of eighteen years.' This ſon of the General's lately embarked for France, to receive his education with George Waſhington, ſon of the Marquis de la Fayette, that active and illuſtrious friend of America.

General Greene left behind him a wife and five children, the eldeſt of whom who has been juſt mentioned, is about thirteen years old.

On Tueſday, the 12th of Auguſt, the United States in Congreſs aſſembled came to the following reſolution: 'That a monument be erected to the memory of Nathaniel Greene, Eſq. at the ſeat of fedral government, with the following inſcription:

Sacred to the Memory of
NATHANIEL GREENE, Eſquire,
who departed this Life,
on the nineteenth of June, MDCCLXXXVI;
late MAJOR-GENERAL
in the Service of the United States,
and
Commander of their Army
in the
Southern Department:
The United States in Congreſs aſſembled,
In Honour of his
Patriotiſm, Valour, and Ability,
have erected this monument.

NOTE (D) for Page 121.

THE enthuſiaſtic zeal and great ſervices of the Marquis de la Fayette, merit a particular detail. At the age of nineteen he eſpouſed the cauſe of America, with all the ardor which the moſt generous philanthropy could inſpire. At a very early period of the war, he determined to embark from his native country, for the United States. Before he could complete his intention, intelligence arrived in Europe, that the American inſurgents, reduced to two thouſand men, were flying through Jerſey before a Britiſh force of thirty thouſand regulars. This news ſo effectually extinguiſhed the little credit which America had in Europe, in the beginning of the year 1777, that the commiſſioners of Congreſs at Paris, though they had previouſly encouraged this project, could not procure a veſſel to forward his intentions. Under theſe circumſtances they thought it but honeſt to diſſuade him from the preſent proſecution of his perilous enterpriſe. It was in vain they acted ſo candid a part. The flame which America had kindled in his breaſt, could not be extinguiſhed by her misfortunes.

misfortunes. 'Hitherto,' said he, in the true spirit of patriotism, 'I 'have only cherished your cause—now I am going to serve it. The 'lower it is in the opinion of the people, the greater will be the effect of 'my departure; and since you cannot get a vessel, I shall purchase and 'fit out one to carry your dispatches to Congress and myself to America.' He accordingly embarked and arrived at Charleston early in the year 1777. Congress soon conferred on him the rank of major-general. He accepted the appointment, but not without exacting two conditions, which displayed the elevation of his spirit: the one, that he should serve on his own expence; the other, that he should begin his services as a volunteer.

He was soon appointed to command an expedition to Canada. The plan was to cross the lakes on the ice; the object, to seize Montreal and St. John's. He was now at the age of twenty, and must have keenly experienced the allurements of independent command; but his cool judgment, and honest heart, restrained from indulging a passion for a military fame, under circumstances that might have injured the cause which he had so zealously espoused. He found that, in case of his proceeding, the army under his command would be in danger of experiencing a fate similar to that of the unfortunate Burgoyne. With a boldness of judgment, that would have done honor to the most experienced general, and without advancing beyond Albany, he relinquished the expedition. Soon after, he received the thanks of Congress for his prudence.

In the four campaigns which succeeded the arrival of the marquis de la Fayette in America, he gave repeated proofs of his military talents, in the middle and eastern states; but the events that took place under his command in Virginia, deserve particular notice.

Early in the year 1781, while the war raged to the southward of Virginia, the marquis de la Fayette was detached on an expedition against Portsmouth; but here his active zeal received a check, no less fatal to his hopes than when he was obliged to relinquish the expedition to Canada. The engagement near the capes of the Chesapeek, between the French chef d'escadre d'Estouches, and the British admiral Arbuthnot, which took place on the fifth of March, 1781, defeated the enterprise. Upon this event, he marched back to the Head of Elk, where he received an order from General Washington to return to Virginia, to oppose General Philips, who had joined General Arnold at Portsmouth. Although the troops under his command were in want of almost every thing, he nevertheless proceeded with them to Baltimore. Here he learned that General Philips was urging preparations to embark at Portsmouth, with upwards of three thousand men. With the Marquis de la Fayette it was a moment of extreme distress and embarrassment. In his whole command, there was not one pair of shoes; but the love and confidence he had universally excited, enabled him to obtain a loan of money, which procured him some necessaries for his troops, and gave renewed vigor to his march. He supposed Richmond to be the object of General Philips, and therefore marched thither with so great expedition, that he arrived at that place the evening before General Philips. He was joined the first night after his arrival by Major-General Baron Steuben, with a corps of militia. In this manner was the capital of Virginia, at that time filled with almost

all

all the military ſtores of the ſtate, ſaved from the moſt imminent danger. The Britiſh appeared the next morning at Mancheſter, juſt oppoſite to Richmond. The two armies ſurveyed each other for ſome time, and then General Philips, apprehending it to be too hazardous to attack the Marquis de la Fayette in his ſtrong poſition, very prudently retired.

Such was the great ſuperiority of numbers, by the combination of the forces under General Arnold, General Philips, and Lord Cornwallis—ſo fatal to all the ſouthern ſtates would have been the conqueſt of Virginia—that the Marquis de la Fayette had before him a labour of the laſt conſequence, and was preſſed on all ſides by innumerable difficulties.

In the firſt moments of the riſing tempeſt, and until he could provide againſt its utmoſt rage, he began to retire with his little army, which conſiſted of about a thouſand regulars, two thouſand militia, and ſixty dragoons. Lord Cornwallis, exulting in the proſpect of ſucceſs, which he thought to be heightened by the youth of his opponent, incautiouſly wrote to Great-Britain, 'that the boy could not eſcape him.' The engagement, however, which was to confirm his promiſe, was ſedulouſly avoided. Finding it impoſſible to force an action, he next endeavoured to cut off the communication of the Marquis de la Fayette with General Wayne, who, with eight hundred Pennſylvanians, was advancing from the northward. The junction, however, was effected at Rackoon Ford, without loſs. The next object of Lord Cornwallis, was to get poſſeſſion of the American ſtores, which, for their greater ſecurity, had been removed from Richmond to Albemarle old court-houſe, above the Point of Fork. While the troops commanded by the Marquis de la Fayette and General Wayne were forming a junction, Lord Cornwallis had gotten between them and their public ſtores. The poſſeſſion of theſe was a principal object with both armies. The Marquis de la Fayette, by forced marches, got within a few miles of the Britiſh army, when they were yet diſtant two days march from Albemarle old court-houſe. Once more the Britiſh general conſidered himſelf ſure of his adverſary. To ſave the ſtores he knew was his deſign, but to accompliſh that object, his lordſhip ſaw no practical way but by a road, in paſſing which, the American army might be attacked to great advantage. It was a critical moment, but the Marquis de la Fayette had the good fortune to extricate himſelf. He opened in the night, by part of his army, a nearer road to Albemarle, which, having been many years diſuſed, was much embarraſſed, and, to the aſtoniſhment of Lord Cornwallis, poſted himſelf in a ſtrong poſition the next day between the Britiſh army and the American ſtores.

His lordſhip, finding all his ſchemes fruſtrated, fell back to Richmond, whither he was followed by the Marquis de la Fayette. The main American army in Virginia was now reinforced by the troops under Major-General Baron Steuben, and by volunteer corps of Virginia and Maryland gentlemen. And the Marquis de la Fayette had the addreſs to impreſs Lord Cornwallis with an idea, that his force was much greater than he actually commanded. His lordſhip, therefore, retreated to Williamſburg.

After a ſeries of manœuvres, which it is not neceſſary to relate, and in which the Britiſh general diſplayed the boldneſs of enterprize, and the young marquis the ſound judgment of age, blended with the ardour of youth,

youth, the former fixed himſelf and his army at York-town. The latter, under various pretences, ſent the Pennſylvania troops to the ſouth ſide of James River; collected a force in Glouceſter county, and made ſundry arrangements ſubſervient to the grand deſign of the whole campaign, which was the capture of Lord Cornwallis, and the Britiſh army under his command.

Sometime after the capture of Cornwallis, the Marquis de la Fayette went to France, where he ſucceſsfully uſed his endeavours to promote the commercial and political intereſt of theſe ſtates.

Pennſylvania, in order to ſhow her eſteem for this gallant nobleman, has lately erected part of her weſtern territory into a ſeparate county, and named it FAYETTE.

NEW

NEW ENGLAND.

THE ſtates eaſt of New-York, were formerly called the *New-England Colonies:* They are ſtill known by the general name of New-England. Several things are common to them all. Their religion, manners, cuſtoms, and character; their climate, ſoil, productions, natural hiſtory, &c. are in many reſpects ſimilar. Many of the hiſtorical events which took place in their ſettlement, and in their progreſs until the year 1692, are intimately connected. Theſe conſiderations have led to the following general deſcription of New-England.

As the territory of Vermont was included in ſome of the original patents granted by the Plymouth Company, and was ſettled wholly from New-England, it is conſidered as a part of it, and included in the following account.

SITUATION and EXTENT.

miles			
Length 350	Between	41° and 46° North Latitude.	
Breadth 140		1° 30 and 8° Eaſt Longitude.	

Boundaries.] New-England is bounded, north by Canada; eaſt by Nova-Scotia and the Atlantic ocean; ſouth by the Atlantic and Long Iſland Sound, and weſt by New-York. It lies in the form of a quarter of a circle. Its weſt line, beginning at the mouth of Byram river, which empties into Long Iſland Sound, at the ſouth-weſt corner of Connecticut, latitude 41°, runs a little eaſt of north, until it ſtrikes the 45th degree of latitude, and then curves to the eaſtward almoſt to the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

Civil diviſions.] New-England is divided into five ſtates, viz. New-Hampſhire, Maſſachuſetts, Rhode-Iſland, Connecticut, and Vermont. Theſe ſtates are ſubdivided into counties, and the counties into townſhips.

Face of the country, mountains, &c.] New-England is a high, hilly, and in ſome parts a mountainous country, formed by nature to be inhabited by a hardy race of free, independent republicans.—The mountains are comparatively ſmall, running nearly north and ſouth in ridges parallel to each other. Between theſe ridges, flow the great rivers majeſtic meanders, receiving the innumerable rivulets and larger ſtreams which proceed from the mountains on each ſide. To a ſpectator on the top of a neighbouring mountain, the vales between the ridges, while in a ſtate of nature, exhibit a romantic appearance. They ſeem an ocean of woods, ſwelled and depreſſed in its ſurface like that of the great ocean itſelf. A richer, though leſs romantic view, is preſented, when the vallies, by induſtrious huſbandmen, have been cleared of their natural growth: and the fruit of their labour appears in loaded orchards, extenſive meadows, covered with

with large herds of ſheep and neat cattle, and rich fields of flax, corn, and the various kinds of grain.

Theſe vallies, which have received the expreſſive name of *interval lands*, are of various breadths, from two to twenty miles; and by the annual inundations of the rivers which flow through them, there is frequently an accumulation of rich, fat ſoil, left upon their ſurface when the waters retire.

There are four principal ranges of mountains paſſing nearly from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, through New-England. Theſe conſiſt of a multude of parallel ridges, each having many ſpurs, deviating from the courſe of the general range; which ſpurs are again broken into irregular, hilly land. The main ridges terminate ſometimes in high bluff heads, near the ſea-coaſt, and ſometimes by a gradual deſcent in the interior part of the country. One of the main ranges runs between Connecticut and Hudſon's rivers. This range branches, and bounds the vales through which flows the Houſatonick river. The moſt eaſtern ridge of this range terminates in a bluff head at Meriden. A ſecond ends in like manner at Willingford, and a third at New-Haven.

In Lyme, on the eaſt ſide of Connecticut river, another range of mountains commences, forming the eaſtern boundary of Connecticut vale. This range treads northerly, at the diſtance, generally, of about ten or twelve miles eaſt from the river, and paſſes through Maſſachuſetts, where the range takes the name of Chicabee mountain; thence croſſing into New-Hampſhire, at the diſtance of about twenty miles from the Maſſachuſetts line, it runs up into a very high peak, called *Monadnick*, which terminates this ridge of the range. A weſtern ridge continues, and in about latitude 43° 20′, runs up into *Sunipee* mountains. About fifty miles further, in the ſame ridge, is *Mooſcoog* mountain.

A third range begins near Stonington in Connecticut. It takes its courſe north-eaſterly, and is ſometimes broken and diſcontinued; it then riſes again, and ranges in the ſame direction into New-Hampſhire, where, in latitude 43° 25′, it runs up into a high peak, called *Cowſawaſkoog*.

The fourth range has a humble beginning about Hopkinton, in Maſſachuſetts. The eaſtern ridge of this range runs north, by Watertown and Concord, and croſſes Merrimack river at Pantucket Falls. In New-Hampſhire it riſes into ſeveral high peaks, of which the White mountains are the principal. From theſe White mountains, a range continues north-eaſt, croſſing the eaſt boundary of New-Hampſhire, in latitude 44° 30′, and forms the height of land between Kennebeck and Chaudiere rivers.

Theſe ranges of mountains are full of lakes, ponds, and ſprings of water, that give riſe to numberleſs ſtreams of various ſizes, which, interlocking each other in every direction, and falling over the rocks in romantic caſcades, flow meandering into the rivers below. No country on the globe is better watered than New-England.

On the ſea-coaſt the land is low, and in many parts level and ſandy. In the vallies, between the forementioned ranges of mountains, the land is generally broken, and in many places rocky, but of a ſtrong rich ſoil, capable of being cultivated to good advantage, which alſo is the caſe with many ſpots even on the tops of the mountains.

Rivers.]

Rivers.] The only river which will be described under New-England is Connecticut river. It rises in a swamp on the height of land, in latitude 45° 10', longitude 4° east. After a sleepy course of eight or ten miles, it tumbles over four separate falls, and turning west keeps close under the hills which form the northern boundary of the vale through which it runs. The Amonoosuck, and Israel rivers, two principal branches of Connecticut river, fall into it from the east, between the latitudes 44° and 45°. Between the towns of Walpole on the east, and Westminster on the west side of the river, are the great falls. The whole river, compressed between two rocks scarcely thirty feet asunder, shoots with amazing rapidity into a broad bason below. Over these falls, a bridge one hundred and sixty feet in length, was built in 1784, under which the highest floods may pass without detriment. This is the first bridge that was ever erected over this noble river. Above Deerfield, in Massachusetts, it receives Deerfield river from the west, and Millers river from the east, after which it turns westerly in a sinuous course to Fighting falls, and a little after tumbles over Deerfield falls, which are impassable by boats. At Windsor, in Connecticut, it receives Farmington river from the west; and at Hartford, meets the tide. From Hartford it passes on in a crooked course, until it falls into Long Island sound, between Saybrook and Lyme.

The length of this river, in a straight line, is nearly three hundred miles. Its general course is several degrees west of south. It is from eighty to one hundred rods wide, one hundred and thirty miles from its mouth.

At its mouth is a bar of sand which considerably obstructs the navigation. Ten feet water at full tides is found on this bar, and the same depth to Middleton. The distance of the bar from this place, as the river runs, is thirty-six miles. Above Middleton are several shoals which stretch quite across the river. Only six feet water is found on the shoal at high tide, and here the tide ebbs and flows but about eight inches. About three miles below Middleton, the river is contracted to about forty rods in breadth, by two high mountains. Almost every where else the banks are low, and spread into fine extensive meadows. In the spring floods, which generally happen in May, these meadows are covered with water. At Hartford the water sometimes rises twenty feet above the common surface of the river, and having all to pass through the above-mentioned straight, it is sometimes two or three weeks before it returns to its usual bed. These floods add nothing to the depth of water on the bar at the mouth of the river; this bar lying too far off in the sound to be affected by them.

On this beautiful river, whose banks are settled almost to its source, are many pleasant, neat, well-built towns. On its western bank, from its mouth northward, are the towns of Saybrook, Haddam, Middleton, Weathersfield, Hartford, Windsor, and Suffield, in Connecticut; West Springfield, Northampton, Hatfield, and Deerfield, in Massachusetts; Guilford, Brattleborough, in which is Fort Dummer, Westminster, Windsor, Hartford, Fairlee, Newbury, Brunswick, and many others in Vermont. Crossing the river into New-Hampshire, and travelling on the eastern bank, you pass through Woodbury nearly opposite to Brunswick, Northumberland, the Coos country, Lyman, Orford, Lyme, Hanover, in which

which is Dartmouth college, Lebanon, Corniſh, Clermont, Charleſton, or No. 4, Cheſterfield, and many others in New-Hampſhire, Sunderland, Hadley, Springfield, Long-meadow, in Maſſachuſetts; and in Connecticut, Enfield, Eaſt Windſor, Eaſt Hartford, Glaſtenbury, Eaſt Haddam, and Lyme.

This river is navigable to Hartford, upwards of fifty miles from its mouth, and the produce of the country for two hundred miles above is brought thither in boats. The boats which are uſed in this buſineſs are flat bottomed, long, and narrow, for the convenience of going up ſtream, and of ſo light a make as to be portable in carts. They are taken out of the river at three different carrying places, all of which make fifteen miles.

Sturgeon, ſalmon, and ſhad are caught in plenty, in their ſeaſon, from the mouth of the river upwards, excepting ſturgeon, which do not aſcend the upper falls; beſides a variety of ſmall fiſh, ſuch as pike, carp, pearch, &c.

From this river are employed three brigs of one hundred and eighty tons each, in the European trade; and about ſixty ſail, from ſixty to one hundred and fifty tons, in the Weſt-India trade; beſides a few fiſhermen, and forty or fifty coaſting veſſels.

Natural Growth.] The ſoil, as may be collected from what has been ſaid, muſt be very various. Each tract of different ſoil is diſtinguiſhed by its peculiar vegetation, and is pronounced good, middling, or bad, from the ſpecies of trees which it produces; and one ſpecies generally predominating in each ſoil, has originated the deſcriptive names of oak land—birch, beach, and cheſnut lands—pine barren—maple, aſh, and cedar ſwamps, as each ſpecies happen to predominate. Intermingled with theſe predominating ſpecies of walnut, firs, elm, hemlock, magnolia, or mooſe wood, ſaſſafras, &c. &c. The beſt lands produce walnut and cheſnut; the next, beach and oak; the lands of the third quality produce fir and pitch pine; the next, whortleberry and barberry buſhes; and the pooreſt produces nothing but poor marſhy imperfect ſhrubs, which is the loweſt kind (if you will allow me to uſe a hard word) of *ſuffrutex* vegetation.

Among the flowering trees and ſhrubs in the foreſts, are the red flowering maple, the ſaſſafras, the locuſt, the tulip tree, the cheſnut, the wild cherry, prune, crab, ſloe, pear, honey-ſuckle, wild roſe, dogwood, elm, leather tree, laurel, hawthorn, &c. which in the ſpring of the year give the woods a moſt beautiful appearance, and fill them with a delicious fragrance.

Among the fruits which grow wild, are the ſeveral kinds of grapes, which are ſmall, ſour, and thick ſkinned. The vines on which they grow are very luxuriant, often overſpreading the higheſt trees in the foreſts. Theſe wild vines, without doubt, might be greatly meliorated by proper cultivation, and a wine be produced from the grapes equal, if not ſuperior, to the celebrated wines of France. Beſides theſe, are the wild cherries, white and red mulberries, cranberries, walnuts, hazlenuts, cheſnuts, butter nuts, beech nuts, wild plums and pears, whortleberries, hilberries, gooſberries, ſtrawberries, &c.

Productions.]

Productions.] The soil in the interior country is calculated for the culture of Indian corn, rye, oats, barley, flax, and hemp, for which the soil and climate are peculiarly proper. buck-wheat, beans, peas, &c. In many of the inland parts wheat is raised in large quantities; but on the sea-coast it has never been cultivated with success, being subject to blasts. Various reasons have been assigned for this. Some have supposed that the blasts were occasioned by the saline vapours of the sea; others have attributed them to the vicinity of barberry bushes; but perhaps the sandiness and poverty of the soil may be as efficacious a cause as either of the others.

The fruits which the country yields from culture, are, apples in the greatest plenty; of these cyder is made which constitutes the principal drink of the inhabitants; also, pears of various sorts, quinces, peaches, from which is made peach brandy, plums, cherries, apricots, &c. The culinary plants are such as have already been enumerated.

New-England is a fine grazing country; the vallies, between the hills, are generally intersected with brooks of water, the banks of which are lined with a tract of rich meadow or interval land. The high and rocky ground is, in many parts, covered with honey-suckle, and generally affords the finest of pasture. It will not be a matter of wonder, therefore, that New-England boasts of raising some of the finest cattle in the world; nor will she be envied, when the labour of raising them is taken into view. Two months of the hottest season in the year, the farmers are employed in procuring food for the cattle; and the cold winter is spent in dealing it out to them. The pleasure and profit of doing this, is however a satisfying compensation to the honest and industrious farmer.

Population, Military Strength, Manners, Customs, and Diversions.] New England is the most populous part of the United States. It contains, at least, eight hundred and twenty-three thousand souls. One-fifth of these are fencible men. New-England then, should any great and sudden emergency require it, could furnish an army of one hundred and sixty-four thousand six hundred men. The great body of these are land-holders and cultivators of the soil. The former attaches them to their country; the latter, by making them strong and healthy, enables them to defend it. The boys are early taught the use of arms, and make the best of soldiers. Few countries on earth, of equal extent and population, can furnish a more formidable army than this part of the union.

New-England may, with propriety, be called a nursery of men, whence are annually transplanted, into other parts of the United States, thousands of its natives. The State of Vermont, which is but of yesterday, and contains about one hundred thousand souls, has received more inhabitants from Connecticut, than from any other state; and yet between the years 1774 and 1782, notwithstanding her numerous emigrations to Vermont, Susquehannah, and other places, and the depopulation occasioned by a seven years bloody war, it is found, from actual census of the inhabitants in the years before-mentioned, that they have increased from one hundred and ninety-seven thousand eight hundred and fifty-six, their number in 1774, to two hundred and nine thousand one hundred and fifty, their number in 1782. Vast numbers of the New-Englanders, since the war, have emigrated into the northern parts of New-York, into Kentucky and the Western

Weſtern Territory, and into Georgia; and ſome are ſcattered into every ſtate, and every town of note in the union.

The inhabitants of New-England are almoſt univerſally of Engliſh deſcent; and it is owing to this circumſtance, and to the great and general attention that has been paid to education, that the Engliſh language has been preſerved among them ſo free of corruption. It is true, that from lazineſs, inattention, and want of acquaintance with mankind, many of the people in the country have accuſtomed themſelves to uſe ſome peculiar phraſes, and to pronounce certain words in a flat, drawling manner. Hence foreigners pretend they know a New-Englandman from his manner of ſpeaking. But the ſame may be ſaid with regard to a Pennſylvanian, a Virginian, or a Carolinian; for all have ſome phraſes and modes of pronunciation peculiar to themſelves, which diſtinguiſh them from their neighbours. Men of eminence in the ſeveral learned profeſſions, and colleges, ought to be conſidered as forming the ſtandard of pronunciation for their reſpective ſtates; and not that claſs of people who have imbibed the habit of uſing a number of ſingular and ridiculous phraſes, and who pronounce badly.

The New-Englanders are generally tall, ſtout, and well-built. They glory, and perhaps with juſtice, in poſſeſſing that ſpirit of freedom, which induced their anceſtors to leave their native country, and to brave the dangers of the ocean, and the hardſhips of ſettling a wilderneſs. Their education, laws and ſituation, ſerve to inſpire them with high notions of liberty. Their jealouſy is awakened at the firſt motion toward an invaſion of their rights. They are indeed often jealous to exceſs; a circumſtance which is a fruitful ſource of imaginary grievances, and of innumerable groundleſs ſuſpicions, and unjuſt complaints againſt government. But theſe ebullitions of jealouſy, though cenſurable, and productive of ſome political evils, ſhew that the eſſence of true liberty exiſts in New-England; for jealouſy is the guardian of liberty, and a characteriſtic of free republicans. A law, reſpecting the deſcent of eſtates which are generally held in fee ſimple, which for ſubſtance is the ſame in all the New-England ſtates, is the chief foundation and protection of this liberty. By this law, the poſſeſſions of the father are to be equally divided among all the children, excepting the eldeſt ſon, who has a double portion. In this way is preſerved that happy mediocrity among the people, which, by inducing œconomy and induſtry, removes from them temptations to luxury, and forms them to habits of ſobriety and temperance. At the ſame time, their induſtry and frugality exempt them from want, and from the neceſſity of ſubmitting to any encroachment on their liberties.

In New-England learning is more generally diffuſed among all ranks of people than in any other part of the globe; ariſing from the excellent eſtabliſhment of ſchools in every townſhip.

Another very valuable ſource of information to the people is the news-papers, of which not leſs than thirty thouſand are printed every week in New-England, and circulated in almoſt every town and village in the country.

A perſon of mature age, who cannot both read and write, is rarely to be found. By means of this general eſtabliſhment of ſchools, the extenſiv circulation of news-papers, and the conſequent ſpread of learning, ev

townſhip throughout the country is furniſhed with men capable of conducting the affairs of their town with judgment and diſcretion. Theſe men are the channels of political information to the lower claſs of people; if ſuch a claſs may be ſaid to exiſt in New-England, where every man thinks himſelf at leaſt as good as his neighbour, and believes that all mankind are, or ought to be, equal. The people from their childhood form habits of canvaſſing public affairs, and commence politicians. This naturally leads them to be very inquiſitive. It is with knowlege as with riches, the more a man has, the more he wiſhes to obtain; his deſire has no bound. This deſire after knowledge, in a greater or leſs degree, prevails throughout all claſſes of people in New-England: and from their various modes of expreſſing it, ſome of which are blunt and familiar, bordering on impertinence, ſtrangers have been induced to mention *impertinent inquiſitiveneſs* as a diſtinguiſhing characteriſtic of New-England people. But this is true only with regard to that claſs of people who have confined themſelves to domeſtic life, and have not had opportunity of mingling with the world; and ſuch people are not peculiar to New-England—they compoſe a great part of the citizens of every ſtate. This claſs, it is true, is large in New-England, where agriculture is the principal employment. But will not a candid and ingenuous mind aſcribe this inquiſitiveneſs in theſe honeſt and well-meaning people to a *laudable* rather than to a cenſurable diſpoſition?

A very conſiderable part of the people have either too little or too much learning to make peaceable ſubjects. They know enough, however, to think they know a great deal, when in fact they know but little. "A little learning is a dangerous thing." Each man has his independent ſyſtem of politics; and each aſſumes a dictatorial office. Hence originates that reſtleſs, litigious, complaining ſpirit, which forms a dark ſhade in the character of New Englandmen.

This litigious temper is the genuine fruit of republicaniſm—but it denotes a corruption of virtue, which is one of its eſſential principles. Where a people have a great ſhare of freedom, an equal ſhare of virtue is neceſſary to the peaceable enjoyment of it. Freedom, without virtue or honour, is licentiouſneſs.

Before the late war, which introduced into New England a flood of corruptions, with many improvements, the ſabbath was obſerved with great ſtrictneſs; no unneceſſary travelling, no ſecular buſineſs, no viſiting, no diverſions were permitted on that ſacred day. They conſidered it as conſecrated to divine worſhip, and were generally punctual and ſerious in their attendance upon it. Their laws were ſtrict in guarding the ſabbath againſt every innovation. The ſuppoſed ſeverity with which theſe laws were compoſed and executed, together with ſome other traits in their religious character, have acquired, for the New-Englanders, the name of a ſuperſtitious, bigotted people. But ſuperſtition and bigotry are ſo indefinite in their ſignifications, and ſo variouſly applied by perſons of different principles and educations, that it is not eaſy to determine whether they ever deſerved that character. Leaving every perſon to enjoy his own opinion in regard to this matter, we will only obſerve, that, ſince the war, a catholic, tolerant ſpirit, occaſioned by a more enlarged intercourſe with mankind, has greatly increaſed, and is becoming univerſal; and if they do not break

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the proper bound, and liberalize away all true religion, of which there is much danger, they will counteract that ſtrong propenſity in human nature, which leads men to vibrate from one extreme to its oppoſite.

There is one diſtinguiſhing characteriſtic in the religious character of this people, which we muſt not omit to mention; and that is, the cuſtom of annually celebrating Faſts and Thankſgivings. In the ſpring, the ſeveral governors iſſue their proclamations, appointing a day to be religiouſly obſerved in faſting, humiliation, and prayer, throughout their reſpective ſtates, in which the predominating vices, that particularly call for humiliation, are enumerated. In autumn, after harveſt, that gladſome æra in the huſbandman's life, the governors again iſſue their proclamations, appointing a day of public thankſgiving, enumerating the public bleſſings received in the courſe of the foregoing year.

This pious cuſtom originated with their venerable anceſtors, the firſt ſettlers in New-England; and has been handed down as ſacred, through the ſucceſſive generations of their poſterity. A cuſtom ſo rational, and ſo happily calculated to cheriſh in the minds of the people a ſenſe of their dependence on the GREAT BENEFACTOR of the world for all their bleſſings, it is hoped will ever be ſacredly preſerved.

There is a claſs of people in New England of the baſer ſort, who, averſe to honeſt induſtry, have recourſe to knavery for ſubſiſtence. Skilled in all the arts of diſhoneſty, with the aſſumed face and frankneſs of integrity, they go about, like wolves in ſheeps' clothing, with a deſign to defraud. Theſe people, enterprizing from neceſſity, have not confined their knaviſh tricks to New-England. Other ſtates have felt the effects of their villany. Hence they have characteriſed the New-Englanders as a knaviſh, artful, and diſhoneſt people. But that conduct which diſtinguiſhes only a ſmall claſs of people in any nation or ſtate, ought not to be indiſcriminately aſcribed to all, or be ſuffered to ſtamp their national character. In New-England there is as great a proportion of honeſt and induſtrious citizens as in any of the United States.

The people of New-England generally obtain their eſtates by hard and preſevering labour: They of conſequence know their value, and ſpend with frugality. Yet in no country do the indigent and unfortunate fare better. Their laws oblige every town to provide a competent maintenance for their poor, and the neceſſitous ſtranger is protected, and relieved from their humane inſtitutions. It may in truth be ſaid, that in no part of the world are the people happier, better furniſhed with the neceſſaries and conveniencies of life, or more independent than the farmers in New-England. As the great body of the people are hardy, independent freeholders, their manners are, as they ought to be, congenial to their employment, plain, ſimple, and unpoliſhed. Strangers are received and entertained among them with a great deal of artleſs ſincerity, friendly, and unformal hoſpitality. Their children, thoſe imitative creatures, to whoſe education particular attention is paid, early imbibe the manners and habits of thoſe around them; and the ſtranger, with pleaſure, notices the honeſt and decent reſpect that is paid him by the children as he paſſes through the country.

As the people, by repreſentation, make their own laws and appoint their own officers, they cannot be oppreſſed; and living under governments,

which have few lucrative places, they have few motives to bribery, corrupt canvaſſings, or intrigue. Real abilities and a moral character unblemiſhed, are the qualifications requiſite in the view of moſt people for officers of public truſt. The expreſſion of a wiſh to be promoted, is the direct way to be diſappointed.

The inhabitants of New-England are generally fond of the arts, and have cultivated them with great ſucceſs. Their colleges have flouriſhed beyond any others in the United States. The illuſtrious characters they have produced, who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in politics, law, divinity, the mathematics and philoſophy, natural and civil hiſtory, and in the fine arts, particularly in poetry, evince the truth of theſe obſervations.

Many of the women in New-England are handſome. They generally have fair, freſh and healthful countenances, mingled with much female ſoftneſs and delicacy. Thoſe who have had the advantages of a good education (and they are conſiderably numerous) are genteel, eaſy, and agreeable in their manners, and are ſprightly and ſenſible in converſation. They are early taught to manage domeſtic concerns with neatneſs and œconomy. Ladies of the firſt rank and fortune make it a part of their daily buſineſs to ſuperintend the affairs of the family. Employment at the needle, in cookery, and at the ſpinning-wheel, with them is honourable. Idleneſs, even in thoſe of independent fortunes, is univerſally diſreputable. The women in the country manufacture the greateſt part of the clothing of their families. Their linen and woollen cloths are ſtrong and decent. Their butter and cheeſe is not inferior to any in the world.

Dancing is the principal and favourite amuſement in New-England; and of this the young people of both ſexes are extremely fond. Gaming is practiſed by none but thoſe who cannot, or rather will not find a reputable employment. The gameſter, the horſe-jockey, and the knave, are equally deſpiſed, and their company is avoided by all who would ſuſtain fair and irreproachable characters. The odious and inhuman practices of duelling, gouging, cock-fighting and horſe-racing, are ſcarcely known here.

The athletic and healthy diverſions of cricket, foot-ball, quoits, wreſtling, jumping, hopping, foot-races and priſon-baſs, are univerſally practiſed in the country, and ſome of them in the moſt populous places, and by people of almoſt all ranks. Squirrel-hunting is a noted diverſion in country places, where this kind of game is plenty. Some divert themſelves with fox-hunting, and others with the more profitable ſports of fiſhing and duck-hunting; and in the frontier ſettlements, where deer and fur game abound, the inhabitants make a lucrative ſport of hunting them.

In the winter ſeaſon, while the ground is covered with ſnow, which is commonly two or three months, ſleighing is the general diverſion. A great part of the families throughout the country are furniſhed with horſes and ſleighs. The young people collect in parties, and with a great deal of ſocial mirth, reſort to a place of rendezvous, where they regale themſelves for a few hours with dancing and a ſocial ſupper, and then retire. Theſe diverſions, as well as all others, are many times carried to exceſs. To their exceſſes, and a ſudden expoſure to extreme cold after the exerciſe of dancing,

dancing, phyſicians have aſcribed the conſumptions, which are ſo frequent among the young people in New-England.

Trade.] New-England has no one ſtaple commodity. The ocean and the foreſts afford the two principal articles of export. Cod-fiſh, mackarel, ſhad, ſalmon, and other fiſh—whale-oil and whale-bone—maſts, boards, ſcantling, ſtaves, hoops, and ſhingles, have been, and are ſtill exported in large quantities. The annual amount of cod and other fiſh, for foreign exportation, including the profits ariſing from the whale-fiſhery, is eſtimated at upwards of half a million.

Beſides the articles enumerated, they export from the various parts of New-England, ſhips built for ſale, horſes, mules, live ſtock—pickled beef and pork, pot-aſh, pearl-aſh, flax-ſeed, butter and cheeſe—New-England diſtilled rum, and other articles which will be mentioned in their proper places. The balance of trade, as far as imperfect calculations will enable us to judge, has generally been againſt New-England; not from any unavoidable neceſſity, but from her extravagant importations. From a view of the annual imports into New-England, it appears that the greateſt part of them conſiſts of the luxuries, or at beſt the diſpenſable conveniencies of life; the country affords the neceſſaries in great abundance.

The paſſions, for the gratification of which theſe articles of luxury are conſumed, have raged ſince the peace of 1783, and have brought a heavy debt upon the conſumers. Neceſſity, that irreſiſtible governeſs of mankind, has of late in a happy degree checked the influence of theſe paſſions, and the people begin to confine themſelves more to the neceſſaries of life. It is wiſhed that the principles of induſtry and frugality may gain ſuch ſtrength as to make thoſe wants, which at firſt may be painful, become ſo familiar as to be no longer felt.

Hiſtory] New-England owes its firſt ſettlement to religious perſecution. Soon after the commencement of the reformation * in England, which was not until the year 1534, the Proteſtants were divided into two parties, one the followers of Luther, and the other of Calvin. The former had choſen gradually, and almoſt imperceptibly, to recede from the church of Rome; while the latter, more zealous, and convinced of the importance of a thorough

* *The reformation was begun by* Martin Luther, *a native of* Saxony, *born in the year* 1483. *He was educated in the Roman Catholic religion, and was an Auguſtin friar, when, in* 1517, *having written ninety-five Theſes againſt the Pope's indulgencies, he exhibited them to public view on the church door at* Wirtenburgh, *in* Saxony, *and thus began the reformation in* Germany. *In* 1528, *the reformed religion was introduced into* Switzerland *by* Zuinglius, Oecolampadius, *and others.*

The year following, the Diet *of the* German Empire *aſſembled at* Spire, *and iſſued a decree againſt the reformation. Againſt this decree, the* Elector *of* Saxony, George, Marquis *of* Brandenburgh, Erneſt *and* Francis, Duke *of* Lunenburg, *the* Landgrave *of* Heſſe, *and the* Count *of* Anhalt, *who were joined by ſeveral of the cities, publicly read their* PROTEST, *and in this way acquired for themſelves and their ſucceſſors down to the preſent time, the name of* PROTESTANTS.

CALVIN,

rough reformation, and at the same time possessing much firmness and high notions of religious liberty, were for effecting a thorough change at once. Their consequent endeavours to expunge from the church all the inventions which had been brought into it since the days of the Apostles, and to introduce the 'Scripture purity,' derived for them the name of PURITANS. From these the inhabitants of New-England descended.

During the successive reigns of Henry VIII. Mary, Elizabeth, and James the First, the Protestants, and especially the Puritans, were the objects of bloody persecution; and thousands of them were either inhumanly burnt, or left more cruelly to perish in prisons and dungeons.

In 1602, a number of religious people in the north of England, finding their ministers urged with *subscription*, or silenced, and themselves greatly oppressed with the commissary courts and otherwise, entered into a solemn covenant with each other 'to walk with God and one another, in the enjoyment of the ordinances of God according to the primitive pattern,' whatever it might cost them.

Among the ministers who entered into this association, was Mr. Robinson, a man of eminent piety and learning, and the Father of New-England.

In 1608, Mr. Robinson's church removed to Amsterdam, in Holland; and the next year to Leyden, where they lived in great friendship and harmony among themselves and their neighbours, until they removed to New-England.

As early as 1617, Mr. Robinson and his church meditated a removal to America. Their motives for this were, to preserve the morals of their youth—to prevent them, through want of employment, from leaving their parents, and engaging in business unfriendly to religion—to avoid the inconveniences of incorporating with the Dutch, and to lay a foundation for propagating the gospel in remote parts of the world: Such were the true reasons of their removal.

These reasons having been proposed and maturely considered by the church, after seeking divine direction by humiliation and prayer, they agreed to remove to America, and settle in a distinct body, under the general government of Virginia; they also agreed that their pastor, Mr. Robinson, should remain with the greatest part of the church, whether they chose to tarry at Leyden, or to come over to America.

In consequence of this agreement, they sent Messrs. R. Cushman and J. Carver, to treat with the Virginia Company upon the subject of settling

CALVIN, *another celebrated reformer, was born at* Noyon, *in* France, *in the year* 1509. *He improved upon* Luther's *plan—expunged many of the Romish ceremonies which he had indulged—entertained different ideas concerning some of the great doctrines of Christianity, and set the Protestant at a greater remove from the Roman Catholic religion. The followers of* Luther *have been distinguished by the name of* LUTHERANS; *and the followers of* Calvin *by the name of* CALVINISTS.

Such was the rapid growth of the Protestant interest, that in 1563, *only* 46 *years after the commencement of the reformation by* Luther, *there were in* 2150 *assemblies of Protestants.*

within

within the limits of their patent, and to enquire whether, in caſe of their removal, the king would grant them liberty of conſcience.

The agents were ſucceſsful in their application. The company aſſured them that they would do every thing in their power to forward ſo good a deſign, and were willing to grant them a patent with ample privileges. But ſuch was the bigotry of the times, that the king, though ſolicited by ſome of the firſt men in the kingdom, could not be prevailed upon to grant them *liberty in religion.* He did, however, at laſt agree to connive at them, and to permit them to live unmoleſted, provided they behaved peaceably; but to tolerate them by his public authority under his ſeal, was inadmiſſible.

This was indeed diſcouraging to the pious people at Leyden; yet with an humble confidence in divine providence, they determined to purſue their original deſign.

Accordingly they ſent their agents to England, where, in September, 1619, after a long attendance, they obtained of the Virginia company a patent of the northern parts of Virginia.*. This patent, with propoſals from Mr. Weſton, and ſeveral other reſpectable merchants and friends, reſpecting their migration, were tranſmitted to the people at Leyden, for their conſideration. Theſe were accompanied with a requeſt that they would immediately commence their preparations for the voyage. On receiving this intelligence, the people, agreeably to their pious cuſtom previous to their engaging in any important affair, appointed a day of ſolemn prayer, on which occaſion, Mr. Robinſon, in a ſermon from 1 Sam. xxiii. 3, 4. endeavoured to diſpel their fears, and encourage their reſolutions. As it was not convenient for them all to go at firſt, not even for all who were willing, they improved this religious opportunity to determine who ſhould firſt embark. After canvaſſing the matter, it was found convenient for the greater number to remain, for the preſent, at Leyden; and of courſe Mr. Robinſon, according to agreement, was to tarry with them. The other part, with Mr. Brewſter for their elder and teacher, agreed to be the firſt adventurers. The neceſſary preparations were now to be made. A ſmall ſhip of ſixty tons was purchaſed, and fitted out in Holland; and another of about one hundred and eighty tons, hired in London. The former was called the *Speedwell*, and the latter the *May flower.* All other matters being prepared, a large concourſe of friends from Leyden and Amſterdam, accompanied the adventurers to the ſhip, which lay at Delf Haven; and the night preceding their embarkation was ſpent in tearful prayers, and in the moſt tender and friendly intercourſe. The next day fair wind invited their departure. The parting ſcene is more eaſily felt than deſcribed. Their mutual good wiſhes—their affectionate and cordial embraces, and other endearing expreſſions of chriſtian love and friendſhip, drew tears even from the eyes of the ſtrangers who beheld the ſcene. When the time arrived that they muſt part, they all, with their beloved paſtor, fell on their knees, and with eyes, and hands, and hearts lifted to Heaven, fervently commended their adventuring brethren

* *This patent was taken out in the name of John Wincob, who providentially never came to America, and ſo all their trouble and expence in obtaining it were loſt, as they never made any uſe of it.*

brethren to the Lord and his bleſſing. Thus, after mutual embraces, accompanied with many tears, they bid a long, and many of them, a laſt farewel.

This was on the 22d of July, 1620 The ſame day they ſailed before a fair wind for Southampton, where they found the other ſhip from London, with the reſt of the adventurers.

After they had made the neceſſary preparations for embarkation, they divided themſelves into two companies, one for each ſhip, and with the approbation of the captains, each company choſe a governor, and two or three aſſiſtants to preſerve order among the people, and to diſtribute the proviſions. On the 5th of Auguſt they ſailed, but the ſmalleſt ſhip proved ſo leaky, that they were obliged to return and refit. On the 21ſt of Auguſt they ſailed again, and proceeded about one hundred leagues from land, when they found their little ſhip totally unfit for the voyage, and returned.

It was not until the 6th of September that they put to ſea again, leaving their little ſhip, and part of their company behind. On the 9th of November, after a dangerous voyage, they arrived at Cape Cod, and the next day anchored in the harbour which is formed by the hook of the cape. This was not the place of their deſtination, neither was it within the limits of their patent.

It was their intention to have ſettled at the mouth of Hudſon's river; but the Dutch, intending to plant a colony there of their own, privately hired the maſter of the ſhip to contrive delays in England, and then to conduct them to theſe northern coaſts, and there, under pretence of ſhoals and winter, to diſcourage them from venturing to the place of deſtination. This is confidently aſſerted by the hiſtorians of that time. Although the harbour in which they had anchored was good, the country around was ſandy and barren. Theſe were diſcouraging circumſtances; but the ſeaſon being far advanced, they prudently determined to make the beſt of their preſent ſituation.

As they were not within the limits of their patent, and conſequently not under the juriſdiction of the Virginia company, they concluded it neceſſary to eſtabliſh a ſeparate government for themſelves. Accordingly, before they landed, having on their knees devoutly given thanks to God for their ſafe arrival, they formed themſelves into a body politic, by a SOLEMN CONTRACT †, to which they all ſubſcribed, thereby making it the baſis of their government. They choſe Mr. John Carver, a gentleman of piety and approved abilities, to be their governor for the firſt year. This was on the 11th of November.

Their

† *The following is an authentic copy of this contract*—"*In the Name of God* Amen: *We whoſe Names are under-written, the Loyal Subjects of our dread Sovereign Lord King* JAMES, *by the grace of* GOD, *of* Great-Britain, France, *and* Ireland, *King, Defender of the Faith, &c.*

"*Having undertaken for the Glory of* God, *and advancement of the Chriſtian Faith, and Honour of our King and Country, a Voyage to Plant the* firſt Colony *in the* Northern Parts *of* Virginia; *Do by theſe Preſents ſolemnly and mutually in the Preſence of God, and one of another,* Covenant *and* Combine *ourſelves*

Their next object was to fix on a convenient place for settlement. In doing this they were obliged to encounter numerous difficulties, and to suffer incredible hardships. Many of them were sick in consequence of the fatigues of a long voyage—their provisions were bad—the season was uncommonly cold—the Indians, though afterwards friendly, were now hostile—and they were unacquainted with the coast. These difficulties they surmounted; and on the 31st of December they were all safely landed at a place, which, in grateful commemoration of Plymouth in England, the town which they last left in their native land, they called PLYMOUTH, This is the first English town that was settled in New-England.

In some of their excursions in search of a suitable place for settlement, they found buried several baskets of Indian corn, to the amount of ten bushels, which fortunately served them for planting the next spring, and perhaps was the means of preserving them from perishing with hunger. They made diligent enquiry for the owners, whom they found, and afterwards paid the full value of the corn.

Before the end of November, Susanna, the wife of William White, was delivered of a son, whom they called PEREGRINE. He is supposed to have been the first child of European extract, born in New England.

The whole company that landed consisted of but 101 souls. Their situation was distressing, and their prospect truly dismal and discouraging. Their nearest neighbours, except the natives, were a French settlement at Port Royal, and one of the English at Virginia. The nearest of these was 500 miles from them, and utterly incapable of affording them relief in a time of famine and danger. Wherever they turned their eyes, distress was before them. Persecuted for their religion in their native land—grieved for the profanation of the holy sabbath, and other licentiousness in Holland—fatigued by their long and boisterous voyage—disappointed, through the treachery of their commander, of their expected country—forced on a dangerous and unknown shore, in the advance of a cold winter—surrounded with hostile barbarians, without any hope of human succour—denied the aid or favour of the court of England—without a patent—without a public promise of the peaceable enjoyment of their religious liberties—worn out with toil and sufferings, without convenient shelter from the rigours of the weather.—Such were the prospects, and such the situation of these pious, solitary christians. To add to their distresses, a general and very mortal sickness prevailed among them, which swept off forty-six of their number before the opening of the next spring.

To

ourselves together unto a Civil Body Politic, for our better Ordering and Preservation, and Furtherance of the Ends aforesaid; and by Virtue hereof to enact constitute, and frame such just and equal Laws, Ordinances, Acts, Constitution and Offices from Time to Time, as shall be thought most meet and convenient for the General Good of the Colony; unto which we Promise all due Submission and Obedience: In witness *whereof we have hereunder subscribed our Names at* Cape Cod, *the* 11*th of* November, *in the Year of the Reign of our Sovereign Lord King* JAMES *of* England, France, *and* Ireland *the* Eighteenth, *and of* Scotland *the* Fifty-fourth, Anno Domini, 1620."

This instrument was signed by 41 *heads of families, with the number in their respective families annexed, making in the whole* 101 *souls.*

To support them under these trials, they had need of all the aids and comforts which christianity affords; and these were sufficient. The free and unmolested enjoyment of their religion, reconciled them to their humble and lonely situation—they bore their hardships with unexampled patience, and persevered in their pilgrimage of almost unparalleled trials, with such resignation and calmness, as gave proof of great piety and unconquerable virtue.

On the 3d of November, 1620, king James signed a patent incorporating the duke of Lenox, the marquisses of Buckingham and Hamilton, the earls of Arundel and Warwick, Sir Francis Gorges, with thirty-four others, and their successors. stying them, 'The council established at Plymouth in the county of Devon, for the planting, ruling, ordering, and governing of New-England in America.' To this council he granted all that part of America which lies between the 40th and 48th degrees of north latitude. This patent is the great *civil basis* of all the grants and patents by which New-England was afterwards divided.

The Plymouth council retained the power vested in them by the crown until the year 1635, when they resigned their charter. Previous to this, however, the council had made several grants of lands to adventurers, who proposed to settle in New-England.—They granted New-Hampshire to Capt. John Mason, in 1621—the Province of Main, to Sir R. Gorges, in 1622, and Massachusetts-Bay to Sir Henry Rosswell and five others, in 1627.

As early as March, 1621, Massasoit*, one of the most powerful Sagamores of the neighbouring Indians, with sixty attendants, made a visit to the Plymouth settlers, and entered into a formal and very friendly treaty with them, wherein they agreed to avoid injuries on both sides—to punish offenders—to restore stolen goods—to assist each other in all justifiable wars—to promote peace among their neighbours, &c. Massasoit and his successors, for fifty years, inviolably observed this treaty. The English are much indebted to him for his friendship, and his memory will ever be respected in New-England.

The Narraganssetts, disliking the conduct of Massasoit, declared war against him, which occasioned much confusion and fighting among the Indians. The Plymouth colony interposed in favour of Massasoit, their good ally, and terminated the dispute, to the terror of their enemies. Even CANONICUS himself, the terrific Sachem of the Narraganssetts, sued for peace.

The prudent, friendly, and upright conduct of the Plymouth colony toward their neighbours, the Indians, secured their friendship and alliance. On the 13th of September, 1621, no less than nine Sachems declared allegiance to king James; and Massasoit, with many of his Sub-Sachems, who lived around the bays of Patuxent and Massachusetts, subscribed a writing acknowledging the king of England their master. These transactions are so many proofs of the peaceful and benevolent disposition of the Plymouth settlers; for had they been otherwise disposed they never could have introduced and maintained a friendly intercourse with the natives.

On

* *The seat of Massasoit was at Pakanokit, on Namasket river, which empties into Narraganset Bay.*

On the 10th of Sept. this year, the king granted to Sir William Alexander a patent of all the tract of country bounded by a line drawn from Cape Sables to the Bay of St. Mary; thence to the river St. Croix, thence north to Canada river—down the river to Gachepe; thence south-east to Cape-Breton Island and Cape-Breton; thence round to Cape-Sables; with all seas and islands within six leagues of the western and eastern parts, and within forty leagues southward of Cape-Breton and Cape-Sables; to be called *Nova-Scotia*.

The first *duel* in New-England, was fought with sword and dagger between two servants. Neither of them were killed, but both were wounded. For this disgraceful offence, they were formally tried before the whole company, and sentenced to have their 'heads and feet tied together, and so to be twenty-four hours without meat or drink.' Such, however, was the painfulness of their situation, and their piteous intreaties to be released, that, upon promise of better behaviour in future, they were soon released by the governor. Such was the origin, and such, I may almost venture to add, was the termination of the odious practice of duelling in New-England, for there have been very few duels fought there since. The true method of preventing crimes is to render them disgraceful. Upon this principle, can there be invented a punishment better calculated to exterminate this criminal practice, than the one already mentioned?

In 1622, Mr. Weston sent over a colony, which attempted a settlement at Weymouth. But they being a set of rude, profane fellows, regardless of justice, provoked the Indians by stealing their corn, and other abuses, to become their enemies, and occasioned much trouble both to themselves and the Plymouth settlers. At length the Indians entered into a conspiracy to destroy the settlement, and would have effected it, had it not been for the interposition of their Plymouth friends. Such, however, was the reduced state of the colony, and their danger from the natives, that they thought it prudent to break up the settlement; which they did in March 1623, and afterwards returned to England.

This year (1622) died *Squanto* the friend of the English, who merits to have his name perpetuated in history. Squanto was one of the twenty Indians whom Hunt perfidiously carried to Spain †; whence he came to London, and afterwards to his native country with the Plymouth colony. Forgetting the perfidy of those who made him a captive, he became a warm friend to the English, and continued so to the day of his death. A few days before he died, he desired the governor to pray that he might go to the Englishman's God in heaven. He gave the few articles he possessed to several of his English friends as remembrances of his love.

We have already mentioned that Mr. Carver was elected governor of the colony immediately after their arrival. He died the 5th of April following. His loss was most sensibly felt, and sincerely lamented. He was a man of great piety, and indefatigable in his endeavours to advance the interest and happiness of the colony. Mr. William Bradford was soon after chosen to succeed him in office. This gentleman, by renewed elections, was continued in office until he died in 1657, except in 1633, 1636 and 1644, when Edward Winslow was chosen, and 1634; when Thomas Prince was

† *See Page 28.*

was elected, who alſo ſucceeded Governor Bradford, and was annually elected, until his death in 1673, when Joſias Winſlow ſucceeded and continued until he died in 1680, and was ſucceeded by Thomas Hinkley, who held the place, except in the interruption by Sir Edmund Andros, until the junction with the Maſſachuſetts in 1692.

In March 1624 Mr. Winſlow, agent for the colony, arrived in the ſhip Charity, and, together with a good ſupply of clothing, brought a *bull and three heifers*, which were the firſt cattle of the kind in this part of America. From theſe, and others that were afterwards brought over from England, ſprang the preſent multitudes of cattle in the northern ſtates. None of the domeſtic animals were found in America by the firſt European ſettlers.

This year Lyford and Oldham, two treacherous intriguing characters, influenced the factious part of the adventurers, to join them in oppoſing the church and government of the colony. Their artful deſigns got vent, and occaſioned much diſturbance. Oldham was detected and baniſhed. Lyford, who afterwards proved to be a villain, was, upon apparent repentance, pardoned and received.

At the cloſe of this year, (1624) the plantation at New-Plymouth, conſiſted of 180 perſons, who lived in thirty-two dwelling houſes. Their ſtock was a few cattle and goats, and a plenty of ſwine and poultry. Their town was impaled about half a mile in compaſs. On a high mount in the town, they had erected a fort of wood, lime and ſtone, and a handſome watch-tower. This year they were able to freight a ſhip of 180 tons. Such was the healthfulneſs of the place, or of the ſeaſons, that, notwithſtanding their frequent deſtitution of the neceſſaries of life, not one of the firſt planters died for three years.

However rigid the New-Plymouth coloniſts may have been at their firſt ſeparation from the church of England, yet they never diſcovered that perſecuting ſpirit which we have ſeen in Maſſachuſetts. When Mrs. Hutchinſon and her adherents were baniſhed from that colony, they applied to the colony of Plymouth, for leave to ſettle upon Aquidnick or Rhode-Iſland, which was then acknowledged to be within Plymouth patent, and it was readily granted, although their tenets were no more approved by Plymouth than by the Maſſachuſetts. Some of the Quakers alſo fled to Plymouth bounds, and probably ſaved their lives; for although they made laws ſevere enough againſt erroneous opinions, yet in no caſe capital; and the Baptiſts were ſtill more favourably received, the town of Swanzey being principally ſettled by Baptiſt refugees from the Maſſachuſetts colony, and when one of their miniſters ſettled in the church of Plymouth, they were content that he ſhould baptize by immerſion or dipping any who deſired it, provided he took no exception to the other miniſter's ſprinkling ſuch for whom immerſion was not judged neceſſary.

About this time ſeveral ineffectual attempts were made to ſettle Weymouth, Dorcheſter, Cape Ann and Nantaſket.

The year 1625 is diſtinguiſhed by the death of the Rev. Mr Robinſon. He died at Leyden in March, in the 50th year of his age. He was truly a great and good man, and lived in great love and harmony with his people. He was held in high eſtimation by all his acquaintance, for his learning, piety, moderation and excellent accompliſhments. His death was lamented as a public loſs, and felt by none more than by his beloved

and

nd far diſtant people at Plymouth. His ſon Iſaac came over to Plyouth, where he lived to the age of 90 years. His deſcendants ſtill live Barnſtable county in Maſſachuſetts.

After the death of Mr. Robinſon, the remaining part of his congregaon were extremely deſirous of coming over to their friends at Plymouth, nd meaſures were taken for the purpoſe; yet it was not until ſeveral ears after, that they effected their deſign.

In Auguſt, 1629, thirty-five of the Leyden congregation, with their milies, and many more pious people from England, arrived in a ſhip om London, to the great joy of their friends at Plymouth. The next pring, another company of Leydeners came over. Whether theſe were ne whole that remained, or whether others came over after them, is not ertain.

From this time New-England began to flouriſh. Sir Henry Roſwell nd others, had received a patent of Maſſachuſetts from the Council of lew-England. Settlements were ſucceſsfully enterprized at Salem, harleſton, Boſton, Dorcheſter and other places, ſo that in forty ears from this time (1629) 120 towns were ſettled, and forty churches were gathered.

The Laudian perſecution was conducted with unrelenting ſeverity; nd while it cauſed the deſtruction of thouſands in England, proved to e a principle of life and vigour to the infant ſettlements in America. everal men of eminence in England, who were the friends and protecors of the Puritans, entertained a deſign of ſettling in New-England, if hey ſhould fail in the meaſures they were purſuing for the eſtabliſhment f the liberty, and the reformation of the religion of their own country. They ſolicited and obtained grants in New-England, and were at great ains in ſetling them. Among theſe patentees were the Lords Brook, ay and Sale, the Pelhams, the Hampdens and the Pyms; names which fterwards appeared with great eclat. Sir Matthew Boynton, Sir Wiliam Conſtable, Sir Arthur Haſlerig, and Oliver Cromwell, were actualy upon the point of embarking for New-England, when Archbiſhop Laud, unwilling that ſo many objects of his hatred ſhould be removed out of the reach of his power, applied for, and obtained, an order from he court to put a ſtop to theſe tranſportations. However, he was not able to prevail ſo far as to hinder New-England from receiving vaſt additions, as well of the clergy, who were ſilenced and deprived of their living, and for non-conformity, as of the laity who adhered to their opinions.

New-Plymouth, until this time, had remained without a patent. Several attempts were made, agents were ſent, and much money was expended, with a view to obtain one, but all hitherto had proved abortive. On the 13th of January, 1630, the council of New-England ſealed a patent to William Bradford, Eſq; and his heirs, of 'all that part of New-England lying between Cohaſſet rivulet towards the north, and Narraganſett river towards the ſouth, the weſtern ocean towards the eaſt, and between and within a ſtrait line directly extending up the main land towards the weſt from the mouth of Narraganſett river, to the utmoſt bound of a country in New-England, called Pokanokett, alias Sawamſett, weſtward, and another like a ſtrait line extending directly from the mouth of Cohaſſett river toward

ward the weſt ſo far up into the main land as the utmoſt limits of the ſaid Pokanoket extend: Alſo, 'all that part of New-England between the utmoſt limits of Caperſecont which adjoineth to the river Kennebeck, and the falls of Negumke, with the ſaid river itſelf, and the ſpace of fifteen miles on each ſide between the bounds above-ſaid,' with all the rights, juriſdictions, privileges, &c. &c. uſual and neceſſary.

This patent paſſed the king's hand, and would no doubt have now been finiſhed, had not the agents, without the notice or advice of the colony, inſerted a clauſe to free the colony from cuſtoms ſeven years inward, and twenty-one outward. But in conſequence of this clauſe the patent was never finiſhed, and they remained without a charter, until they were incorporated with Maſſachuſetts in 1691 or 1692. Notwithſtanding this, New-Plymouth was a government *de facto*, and conſidered as ſuch by king Charles, in his letters and orders which were ſent them at various times previous to their incorporation with Maſſachuſetts.

It was in the ſpring of 1630, that the GREAT CONSPIRACY was entered into by the Indians in all parts, from the Narraganſetts round to the eaſtward, to extirpate the Engliſh. The colony at Plymouth was the principal object of this conſpiracy. They well knew that if they could effect the deſtruction of Plymouth, the infant ſettlement at Maſſachuſetts would fall an eaſy ſacrifice. They laid their plan with much art. Under colour of having ſome diverſion at Plymouth, they intended to have fallen upon the inhabitants, and thus to have effected their deſign. But their plot was diſcloſed to the people at Charleſton, by John Sagamore, an Indian, who had always been a great friend to the Engliſh. This treacherous deſign of the Indians alarmed the Engliſh, and induced them to erect forts and maintain guards, to prevent any ſuch fatal ſurprize in future. Theſe preparations, and the firing of the *great guns*, ſo terrified the Indians that they diſperſed, relinquiſhed their deſign, and declared themſelves the friends of the Engliſh.

Such was the vaſt increaſe of inhabitants in New-England by natural population, and particularly by emigrations from Great-Britain, that in a few years, beſides the ſettlements in Plymouth and Maſſachuſetts, very flouriſhing colonies were planted in Rhode-Iſland, Connecticut, New-Haven and New-Hampſhire. The dangers to which theſe colonies were expoſed from the ſurrounding Indians, as well as from the Dutch, who, although very friendly to the infant colony at Plymouth, were now likely to prove troubleſome neighbours, firſt induced them to think of an alliance and confederacy for their mutual defence. Accordingly in 1643, the four colonies of Plymouth, Maſſachuſetts, Connecticut, and New-Haven, agreed upon articles of confederation, whereby a congreſs was formed, conſiſting of two commiſſioners from each colony, who were choſen annually, and when met were conſidered as the repreſentatives of 'The united colonies of New-England.' The powers delegated to the commiſſioners were much the ſame as thoſe veſted in Congreſs by the articles of confederation, agreed upon by the United States in 1778. The colony of Rhode-Iſland would gladly have joined in this confederacy, but Maſſachuſetts, for particular reaſons, refuſed to admit their commiſſioners. This union ſubſiſted, with ſome few alterations, until the year 1686,

586, when all the charters, except that of Connecticut, were in effect icated, by a commiſſion from James the IId.

I ſhall cloſe this general hiſtory of New-England with a few remarks ſpecting the Indians.

We cannot even hazard a conjecture reſpecting the Indian population f New-England, at the time of its ſettlement by the Engliſh. Captain nith, in a voyage to this coaſt in 1614, ſuppoſed, that on the Maſſachu-tts Iſland, there were about 3000 Indians. All accounts agree, that ie ſea-coaſt and neighbouring iſlands were thickly inhabited.

Three years before the arrival of the Plymouth colony, a very mortal ckneſs, ſuppoſed to have been the *plague*, raged with great violence mong the Indians in the eaſtern parts of New-England. Whole towns ere depopulated. The living were not able to bury the dead; and their ones were found lying above ground, many years after. The Maſſa-huſetts Indians are ſaid to have been reduced from 30,000 to 300 fight-ig men. In 1633, the ſmall-pox ſwept off great numbers of the Indians Maſſachuſetts.

In 1763, on the Iſland of Nantucket, in the ſpace of four months, the ndians were reduced, by a mortal ſickneſs, from 320 to 85 ſouls. The and of Providence is noticeable in theſe ſurpriſing inſtances of mortality, mong the Indians, to make room for the Engliſh. Comparatively few ave periſhed by wars. They waſte and moulder away—they, in a man-er unaccountable, diſappear.

The number of Indians in the ſtate of Connecticut in 1774, was 1363. Their number was again taken in 1782, but was not kept ſeparate from hat of the Negroes. Their number is doubtleſs much leſſened. The rincipal part of their preſent population in this ſtate is at Mohegan, in New-London county.

The number of Indians in Rhode-Iſland in 1783, was only 525. Vlore than half of theſe live in Charleſton, in the county of Waſhington. n 1774, the number of Indians in Rhode-Iſland was 1482; ſo that in ine years the decreaſe was 957. I have not been able to aſcertain the exact ſtate of the Indian population in Maſſechuſetts and New-Hamp-hire. In 1784, there was a tribe of about forty Indians at Norridge-walk, in the Province of Main, with ſome few other ſcattering remains of tribes in other parts; and a number of towns thinly inhabited round Cape Cod.

When the Engliſh firſt arrived in America, the Indians had no times nor places ſet apart for religious worſhip. The firſt ſettlers in New-England, were at great pains to introduce among them the habits of civilized life, and to inſtruct them in the Chriſtian religion. A few years ntercourſe with the Indians, induced them to eſtabliſh ſeveral good and natural regulations. They ordained, that if a man be idle a week, or at moſt a fortnight, he ſhall pay five ſhillings. Every young man, not a ſervant, ſhall be obliged to ſet up a wigwam, and plant for himſelf. If in unmarried man ſhall lie with an unmarried woman, he ſhall pay twenty ſhillings. If any woman ſhall not have her hair tied up ſhe ſhall pay five ſhillings, &c.

The

The Rev. Mr. Elliott, of Roxbury, near Boſton, who has been ſtyled the *great Indian Apoſtle*, with much labour, learned the Natic dialect of the Indian languages. He publiſhed an Indian grammar, and preached in Indian to ſeveral tribes, and in 1664, tranſlated the Bible, and ſeveral religious books into the Indian language He relates ſeveral pertinent queries of the Indians reſpecting the Chriſtian religion. Among others; whether JESUS CHRIST, the mediator or interpreter, could underſtand prayers in the Indian language? If the father be bad and the child good; why ſhould God, in the ſecond commandment, be offended with the child? How the Indians came to differ ſo much from the Engliſh in the Knowledge of GOD and JESUS CHRIST, ſince they all ſprang from one father? Mr. Elliott was indefatigable in his labours, and travelled through all parts of Maſſachuſetts and Plymouth colonies, as far as Cape Cod. The colony had ſuch a veneration for him, that in any act of the general aſſembly, relating to the Indians, they expreſs themſelves thus, 'By the advice of ſaid magiſtrates, and of Mr. Elliott.' Mr. Mayhew, who alſo learned the Indian language, was very active in propagating the knowledge of chriſtianity among the Indians at Nantucket, Martha's-Vineyard, and Elizabeth-Iſland.

Mr. Brainard was a truly pious and ſucceſsful miſſionary among the Indians on the Suſquehannah and Delaware rivers. In 1744, he rode about 4000 miles among the Indians; ſometimes five or ſix weeks together without ſeeing a white perſon. The Rev. Mr. Kirtland, of Stockbridge, has been laboriouſly engaged, and greatly ſerviceable in civilizing and chriſtianizing the Oneida and other Indians.

Concerning the religion of the untaught natives of America, Mr. Brainard, who was well acquainted with it, informs us, that after the coming of the white people, the Indians in New-Jerſey, who once held a plurality of Deities, ſuppoſed there were only three, becauſe they ſaw people of three kinds of complexions, viz—Engliſh, Negroes, and themſelves.

It is a notion pretty generally prevailing among them, that it was not the ſame God made them who made us; but that they were created after the white people: and it is probable they ſuppoſed their God gained ſome ſpecial ſkill, by ſeeing the white people made, and ſo made them better: for it is certain they look upon themſelves, and their methods of living, which they ſay their God expreſly preſcribed for them, vaſtly preferable to the white people, and their methods.

With regard to a future ſtate of exiſtence, many of them imagine that the *chickung*, *i. e.* the ſhadow, or what ſurvives the body, will, at death, go ſouthward, and in an unknown, but curious place—will enjoy ſome kind of happineſs, ſuch as hunting, feaſting, dancing, and the like. And what they ſuppoſe will contribute much to their happineſs in the next ſtate is, that they ſhall never be weary of thoſe entertainments.

Thoſe who have any notion about rewards and puniſhments in a future ſtate, ſeem to imagine that moſt will be happy, and that thoſe who are not ſo, will be puniſhed only with privation, being only excluded from the walls of the good world where happy ſpirits reſide.

Theſe rewards and puniſhments, they ſuppoſe to depend entirely upon their behaviour towards mankind; and have no reference to any thing which relates to the worſhip of the Supreme Being.

The

The natives of New-England, according to Mr. Neal, believed not only a plurality of gods, who made and governed the several nations of the world, but they made deities of every thing they imagined to be great, powerful, beneficial, or hurtful to mankind; yet, they conceived one Almighty Being, who dwells in the south-west region of the heavens, to be superior to all the rest: this Almighty Being they call Kichtan, who at first, according to their tradition, made a man and woman out of a stone, but upon some dislike destroyed them again, and then made another couple out of a tree, from whom descended all the nations of the earth; but how they came to be scattered and dispersed into countries so remote from one another, they cannot tell. They believed their Supreme God to be a good Being, and paid a sort of acknowledgement to him for plenty, victory, and other benefits.

But there is another power which they called Hobbamocko, in English the Devil, of whom they stood in greater awe, and worshipped merely from a principle of fear.

The immortality of the soul was universally believed among them; when good men die, they said, their souls went to Kichtan, where they meet their friends, and enjoy all manner of pleasures; when wicked men die, they went to Kichtan also, but were commanded to walk away; and so wander about in restless discontent and darkness for ever.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

SITUATION and EXTENT.

Miles.		
Length 180	Between	2° 40′ and 4° 20′ East Longitude.
Breadth 60		42° 50′ and 45° North Latitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED northwardly by the British province of Quebec; north-east by the old province of Main; south-east by the Atlantic ocean; south by the state of Massachusetts; west and north-west by the western bank of Connecticut river, which forms the line of division between New-Hampshire and Vermont. The shape of New-Hampshire resembles an open fan, Connecticut river being the curve, the southern line the shortest, and the eastern line the longest side.

Civil Divisions.] New-Hampshire is divided into counties † and townships; of the former are the five following, viz.

† *The first act for dividing New-Hampshire into counties was passed as late as* 1769.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Rockingham,	PORTSMOUTH and Exeter.
Stafford,	Dover and Durham,
Hillſborough,	Amherſt,
Cheſhire,	Keen and Charleſton,
Grafton,	Haveril and Plymouth.

In 1776, there were 165 ſettled townſhips in this ſtate. Since that time the number has been greatly increaſed; and as a conſiderable part of the ſtate is unlocated, the number will continue to increaſe. Theſe townſhips which were laid out in the infancy of the ſtate are large, and differ in their ſize; but thoſe of later date are uniformly ſix miles ſquare.

Chief Towns.] Portſmouth is much the largeſt town in this ſtate. It ſtands on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of Piſcataqua river, about two miles from the ſea, and contains about 600 houſes, and 4400 inhabitants. The town is handſomely built, and pleaſantly ſituated. Its public buildings are a court-houſe, two churches for Congregationaliſts, one for Epiſcopalians, and one other houſe for public worſhip.

Its harbour is one of the fineſt on the continent, having a ſufficient depth of water for veſſels of any burthen. It is defended againſt ſtorms by the adjacent land in ſuch a manner, as that ſhips may ſecurely ride there in any ſeaſon of the year. Beſides, the harbour is ſo well fortified by nature, that very little art will be neceſſary to render it impregnable. Its vicinity to the ſea renders it very convenient for naval trade. A light-houſe, with a ſingle light, ſtands at the entrance of the harbour.

Exeter is a pretty town, fifteen miles ſouth-weſterly from Portſmouth, on the ſouth-ſide of Exeter river. It has a harbour of eight and an half feet water, and was formerly famous for ſhip-building.

Dover Neck, which makes a part of the town of Dover, is ſituated between two branches of Piſcataqua river, and is a fine, dry and healthy ſituation; ſo high as to command the neighbouring ſhores, and afford a very extenſive and delightful proſpect.

There are many conſiderable and flouriſhing towns on Connecticut river, in the weſtern parts of this ſtate.

Rivers, bays, and lakes.] The Piſcataqua river has four branches, Berwick, Cochechy, Exeter, and Durham, which are all navigable for ſmall veſſels and boats, ſome fifteen, others twenty miles from the ſea. Theſe rivers unite about eight miles from the mouth of the harbour, and form one broad, deep, rapid ſtream, navigable for ſhips of the largeſt burthen.

This river forms the only port of New-Hampſhire. Its principal branch, called Nywichwannock, ſprings from the ſouthernmoſt of Lovel's ponds, and tumbling over ſeveral falls, in its ſoutherly courſe, meets the other ſtreams, which uniting form Piſcataqua river. A line drawn from the northern head of this river, until it meets the boundary of the province of Quebec, divides New-Hampſhire from the province of Main.

The Merrimak bears that name from its mouth to the confluence of Pemigewaſſet and Winipiſiokee rivers, the latter has its ſource in the lake of the ſame name; one branch of the former riſes in Squam pond, latitude 43° 50′. Their junction is in about latitude 43° 30′.

In

In its courſe, it receives numberleſs ſmall ſtreams, iſſuing from ponds and ſwamps in the vallies. It tumbles over two conſiderable falls, Amaſkäëg, twenty-ſix feet perpendicular, and Pantucket great falls, which has two pitches, and the ſtream ſhoots with an inconceivable rapidity between the upper and lower pitches. The upper fall is ten feet perpendicular; the rapid, between the two falls, deſcends ten feet in the courſe of its ſhot; the latter falls twenty-four feet in ſixty-five rods. In the whole the water falls forty feet. From Haverhill the river runs winding along, through a pleaſant rich vale of meadow—and paſſing between Newbury-Port and Saliſbury, empties into the ocean.

Great-Bay, ſpreading out from Piſcataqua river, between Portſmouth and Exeter, is the only one that deſerves mentioning.

There are ſeveral remarkable ponds or lakes in this ſtate. *Umbagog* is a large lake, quite in the north eaſt corner of the ſtate. *Winniſipiokee* lake, is nearly in the centre of the ſtate, and is about twenty miles long, and from three to eight broad.

Face of the Country.] The land next to the ſea, is generally low, but as you advance into the country, the land riſes into hills. Some parts of the ſtate are mountainous.

Mountains.] The *White mountains* are the higheſt part of a ridge, which extends north-eaſt and ſouth-weſt, to a length not yet aſcertained. The whole circuit of them is not leſs than fifty miles. The height of theſe mountains, above an adjacent meadow, is reckoned, from obſervations made by the Rev. Mr. Cutler, of Ipſwich, in 1784, to be about 5500 feet, and the meadow is 3500 feet above the level of the ſea. The ſnow and ice cover them nine or ten months in the year, during which time, they exhibit that bright appearance from which they are denominated the *White mountains*. From this ſummit, in clear weather, is exhibited a noble view, extending ſixty or ſeventy miles in every direction. Although they are more than ſeventy miles within land, they are ſeen many leagues off at ſea, and appear like an exceeding bright cloud in the horizon. Theſe immenſe heights, being copiouſly repleniſhed with water, afford a variety of beautiful caſcades. Three of the largeſt rivers in New-England, receive a great part of their waters from theſe mountains. Amanooſuck and Iſrael Rivers, two principal branches of Connecticut, fall from their weſtern ſides. Peabody river, a branch of the Amariſcogen, falls from the north-eaſt ſide, and almoſt the whole of the Saco, deſcends from the ſouthern ſide. The higheſt ſummit of theſe mountains, is in about latitude 44°.

The *Monadnik* is a very high mountain, in Cheſhire county, in the ſouth-weſtern parts of the ſtate.

Climate.] The air in New-Hampſhire is ſerene and healthful. The weather is not ſo ſubject to change as in more ſouthern climates. This ſtate, emboſoming a number of very high mountains, and lying in the neighbourhood of others, whoſe towering ſummits are covered with ſnow and ice three quarters of the year, is intenſely cold in the winter ſeaſon. The heat of ſummer is great, but of ſhort duration. The cold braces the conſtitution, and renders the labouring people healthful and robuſt.

Soil and Productions.] On the ſea-coaſt, and many places inland, the ſoil is ſandy, but affords good paſturage. The intervals at the foot of the mountains are greatly enriched by the freſhets which bring down the ſoil upon them, forming a fine mould, and producing corn, grain, and herbage in the moſt luxuriant plenty. The back lands, which have been cultivated, are generally very fertile, and produce the various kinds of grain, fruits, and vegetables, which are common to the other parts of New-England. The uncultivated lands are covered with extenſive foreſts of pine, fir, cedar, oak, walnut, &c.

Manufactures.] As this ſtate is the living magazine of maſts and naval timber, and affords every other material neceſſary for ſhip-building, that buſineſs may here be carried on extenſively, and to very great advantage. Indeed much was done in this way before the war. A number of merchant veſſels, and ſome frigates were built annually, and ſold in Europe; and in the time of the war, a ſeventy-four gun ſhip was built at Portſmouth. Since the peace, this buſineſs has been revived.

Trade.] The principal trade of New-Hampſhire was formerly to the Weſt-India ſugar-iſlands, to which they exported all the various kinds of lumber—horſes, cattle, ſheep, poultry, ſalted proviſions, pot and pearl aſhes, dried fiſh, &c. and received in return, rum, ſugar, molaſſes, cocoa, &c. Their ſhips were uſually ſent to the Weſt-India iſlands for freight to Europe, or to the Bay of Honduras, for logwood; and from thence to Europe, where they were ſold. They alſo exported maſts, yards, and ſpars for the royal navy of Great-Britain.

Population, Character, &c.] No actual cenſus of the inhabitants has been lately made. In the Convention at Philadelphia, in 1787, they were reckoned at 102,000.

There is no characteriſtical difference between the inhabitants of this and the other New-England States. The ancient inhabitants of New-Hampſhire were emigrants from England. Their poſterity, mixed with emigrants from Maſſachuſetts, fill the lower and middle towns.

Emigrants from Connecticut compoſe the largeſt part of the inhabitants of the weſtern towns, adjoining Connecticut river. Slaves there are none. Negroes, who were never numerous in New-Hampſhire, are all free by the firſt article of the bill of rights.

Iſlands.] The Iſles of Shoals are the only iſlands in the ſea, belonging to New-Hampſhire. They are convenient for the Cod-fiſhery, which was formerly carried on there to great advantage, but the people are now few and poor.

Indians.] There are no Indians in the ſtate. The ſcattered remains of former tribes, retired to Canada many years ſince.

Conſtitution,] The Conſtitution of the ſtate which was adopted in 1784, is taken, almoſt verbatim, from that of Maſſachuſetts. The principal differences, except ſuch as ariſe from local circumſtances, are the following: The ſtiles of the Conſtitutions, and of the ſupreme magiſtrates in each ſtate, are different. In one it is 'GOVERNOR of the COMMONWEALTH of Maſſachuſetts,' in the other, 'PRESIDENT of the

STATE

STATE of New-Hampshire.' In each state, the supreme magistrate has the title of 'HIS EXCELLENCY.'

The President of New-Hampshire, like the Governor of Massachusetts, has not the power of negativing all bills and resolves of the senate and house of representatives, and of preventing their passing into laws, unless approved of by two-thirds of the members present. In New-Hampshire 'the President of the State presides in the senate', in Massachusetts the senate choose their own President.

There are no other differences worth mentioning, except it be in the mode of appointing militia officers, in which New-Hampshire has greatly the advantage of Massachusetts. *See Massachusetts.*

Colleges, Academies, &c.] In the township of Hanover, in the western part of this state, is Dartmouth-College, situated on a beautiful plain, about half a mile of Connecticut River, in latitude 43° 33'. It was named after the Right Honorable William Earl of Dartmouth, who was one of its principal benefactors. It was founded by the late pious and benevolent Dr. Eleazer Wheelock, who, in 1769, obtained a royal charter, wherein ample privileges were granted, and suitable provision made for the education and instruction of youth, of the Indian tribes, in reading, writing, and all parts of learning which should appear necessary and expedient for civilizing and christianizing the children of Pagans, as well as in all liberal arts and sciences; and also of English youths and any others. The very humane and laudable attempts which have been made to christianize and educate the Indians, have not, through their native untractableness, been crowned with that success which was hoped and expected. Its situation, in a frontier country, exposed it, during the late war, to many inconveniencies, which prevented its rapid progress. It flourished, however, amidst all its embarrassments, and is now one of the most growing seminaries in the United States. It has, in the four classes, about 130 students, under the direction of a President, two Professors, and two Tutors. It has twelve Trustees, who are a body corporate, invested with the powers necessary for such a body. The library is elegant, containing a large collection of the most valuable books. Its apparatus consists of a competent number of useful instruments, for making mathematical and philosophical experiments. There are three buildings for the use of the students; one of which was erected in 1786, and is not yet finished. It is one hundred and fifty feet in length, and fifty in breadth, three stories high and handsomely built. It has a broad passage running through its centre from end to end, intersected by three others. In front is a large green encircled with a number of handsome houses. Such is the salubrity of the air, that no instance of mortality has happened among the students since the first establishment of the College.

At Exeter, there is a flourishing Academy, under the instruction of Mr. William Woodbridge; and at Portsmouth a Grammar-School. All the towns are bound by law to support schools; but the grand jurors, whose business it is to see that these laws are executed, are not so careful as they ought to be in presenting sins of *omission*.

Churches, &c.] The churches in New-Hampshire are principally for congregationalists; some for Presbyterians and Baptists, and one for Episcopalians

lians. Miniſters contract with their pariſhes for their ſupport. No pariſh is obliged to have a miniſter; but if they make a contract with one, they are obliged by law to fulfil it. Liberty is ever given to any individual of a pariſh to change their denomination; and in that caſe they are liberated from their part of the pariſh contract.

Damage ſuſtained in the late war.] The enemy never entered New-Hampſhire. This is the only ſtate that eſcaped their ravages. Their loſſes of men and ſhips, damage by depreciation of money and loſs of buſineſs, were felt in proportion as in other ſtates.

Hiſtory] The firſt diſcovery made by the Engliſh of any part of New-Hampſhire, was in 1614, by Capt. John Smith, who ranged the ſhore from Penobſcot to Cape Cod; and in this route. diſcovered the river Piſcataqua. On his return to England, he publiſhed a deſcription of the country, with a map of the coaſt, which he preſented to Prince Charles, who gave it the name of NEW-ENGLAND.

In 1621, Capt. John Maſon obtained from the council of Plymouth, a grant of all the land from the river *Naumkeag* (new Salem) round Cape Ann, to the river Merrimak, up each of thoſe rivers, and from a line connecting the furtheſt ſources of them incluſively, with all iſlands within three miles of the coaſt. This diſtrict was called *Mariana*. The next year, another grant was made to Sir Ferdinando Gorges and Maſon jointly, of all the lands between the Merrimak and Sagadahok, extending back to the great lakes of Canada. This grant, which includes a part of the other, was called *Laconia*.

Under the authority of this grant, in 1623, a ſettlement was made at Little Harbour, near the mouth of the Piſcataqua.

In 1629, ſome planters from Maſſachuſetts-Bay, wiſhing to form a ſettlement in the neighbourhood of Piſcataqua, procured a general meeting of the Indians, at Squamſcot falls, where, *with the univerſal conſent of their ſubjects*, they purchaſed of the Indian chiefs, for a valuable conſideration, a tract of land comprehended between the rivers Piſcataqua and Merrimak, and a line connecting theſe rivers, drawn at the diſtance of about thirty miles from the ſea-coaſt, and obtained a deed of the ſame, witneſſed by the principal perſons of Piſcataqua and the province of Main.

The ſame year, Maſon procured a new patent, under the common ſeal of the council of Plymouth, of all lands included within lines drawn from the mouths and through the middle of Piſcataqua and Merrimak rivers, until ſixty miles were compleated, and a line croſſing over land connecting thoſe points, together with all iſlands within five leagues of the coaſt. This tract of land was called New-Hampſhire. It comprehended the whole of the above-mentioned Indian purchaſe; and what is ſingular and unaccountable, the ſame land which this patent covered, and much more, had been granted to Gorges and Maſon jointly ſeven years before.

In 1635, the Plymouth company reſigned their charter to the king, but this reſignation did not materially affect the patentees under them, as the ſeveral grants to companies and individuals were moſtly confirmed, at ſome ſubſequent period, by charters from the crown.

In 1640, four diſtinct governments had been formed on the ſeveral branches of Piſcataqua. The people under theſe governments, unprotected by England,

England, in conſequence of her own internal diſtractions, and too much divided in their opinions to form any general plan of government which could afford any proſpect of permanent utility, though beſt to ſolicit the protection of Maſſachuſetts. That government readily granted their requeſt, and accordingly, in April, 1641, the principal ſettlers of Piſcataqua, by a formal inſtrument, reſigned the juriſdiction of the whole to Maſſachuſetts, on condition that the inhabitants ſhould enjoy the ſame liberties with their own people, and have a court of juſtice erected among them. The property of the whole patent of Portſmouth, and of one-third of that of Dover, and of all the improved lands therein, was reſerved to the lords and gentlemen proprietors and their heirs for ever. Theſe reſervations were acceded to on the part of Maſſachuſetts, and what is extraordinary, and manifeſted the fondneſs of the government for retaining them under their juriſdiction, a law of Maſſachuſetts, declaring that none but church members ſhould ſit in the general court, was diſpenſed with in their favour. While they were united with Maſſachuſetts, they were governed by the general laws of the colony, and the conditions of the union were ſtrictly obſerved. During this period, however, they had to ſtruggle with many difficulties. One while involved together with Maſſachuſetts in a bloody war with the Indians; and repeatedly diſturbed with the warm diſputes occaſioned by the ineffectual efforts of Maſon's heirs to recover the property of their anceſtor. Theſe diſputes continued until 1679, when Maſon's claim, though never eſtabliſhed in law, was patronized by the crown, and New-Hampſhire was erected into a ſeparate government. Maſſachuſetts was directed to recal all her commiſſions for governing in that province, which was accordingly done. The firſt commiſſion for the government of New-Hampſhire, was given to Mr. Cutt, as preſident of the province, on the 18th of September, 1679.

In the year 1691, Maſon's heirs ſold their title to their lands in New-England, to Samuel Allen, of London, for £.2750. This produced new controverſies concerning the property of the lands, which embroiled the provinnce for many years.

In 1692, Colonel Samuel Allen was commiſſioned governor of New-Hampſhire. Eight years after he came over to America to proſecute his claim, but died before the affair was concluded.

The inhabitants about this time ſuffered extremely from the cruel barbarity of the Indians; Exeter, Dover, and the frontier ſettlements, were frequently ſurprized in the night—the houſes plundered and burnt—the men killed and ſcalped—and the women and children either inhumanly murdered, or led captives into the wilderneſs. The firſt ſettlers in other parts of New-England were alſo, about this time, harraſſed by the Indians, and it would require volumes to enumerate their particular ſufferings.

In 1737, a controverſy, which had long ſubſiſted between the two governments of Maſſachuſetts and New-Hampſhire, reſpecting their diviſional line, was heard by commiſſioners appointed by the crown for that purpoſe. Theſe commiſſioners determined that the northern boundaries of Maſſachuſetts ſhould be a line three miles north from the river Merrimak as far as Pantucket falls, then to run weſt 10° north, until it meets New-York line. Although Maſſachuſetts felt themſelves aggrieved by this deciſion, and attempted ſeveral ways to obtain redreſs, the line has never

never been altered, but is, at preſent, the diviſional line between the two ſtates. Douglaſs mentions, 'That the governor of Maſſachuſetts, for many years, was alſo governor of New-Hampſhire, with a diſtinct commiſſion.' This muſt have been many years after New-Hampſhire had been erected into a ſeparate government in 1679. He adds that New-Hampſhire entered a complaint to the king in council againſt the joint governor, relative to ſettling the boundaries between the two provinces. This complaint was judged by the king to have been well founded, and 'therefore a ſeparate governor for New-Hampſhire was commiſſioned anno, 1740.'

Although New-Hampſhire was under the juriſdiction of the governor of Maſſachuſetts, yet they had a ſeparate legiſlature. They ever bore a proportionable ſhare of the expences and levies in all enterprizes, expeditions, and military exertions, whether planned by the colony or the crown. In every ſtage of the oppoſition that was made to the encroachments of the Britiſh parliament, the people, who ever had a high ſenſe of liberty, cheerfully bore their part. At the commencement of hoſtilities, indeed, while their council was appointed by royal *mandamus*, their patriotic ardour was checked by theſe crown officers But when freed from this reſtraint, they flew eagerly to the American ſtandard when the voice of their country declared for war, and their troops had a large ſhare of the hazard and fatigue, as well as of the glory of accompliſhing the late revolution.

MASSACHUSETTS.

SITUATION and EXTENT.

miles.			
Length 150	Between	41° 20′ and 42° 50′ North Latitude.	
Breadth 60		2° and 5° 30′ Eaſt Longitude.	

Boundaries.] BOUNDED northwardly by New-Hampſhire and Vermont; weſt by New-York; ſouthwardly by Connecticut, Rhode-Iſland, and the Atlantic; eaſt by the Atlantic and Maſſachuſetts Bay.

Rivers] Merrimak river, before deſcribed, runs through the north-eaſtern part of this ſtate. Charles river riſes from five or ſix ſources, on the ſouth eaſt ſide of Hopkinton and Holliſton ridge. The main ſtream runs north eaſt, then north and north-eaſtwardly, round this ridge, until, in Natick townſhip, it mingles with Mother-Brook, which is a conſiderable branch of Charles river. The river thus formed, runs weſtward, tumbling

in

in falls acroſs the ſouth-weſt end of Brooklyn hills, and paſſing near Framingham pond, runs north-eaſt to Cambridge; hence winding round in a ſinuous courſe falls into Boſton harbour. Taunton river riſes in the Blue Mountains, which lie back of Milton and Braintree, and forms the principal drain of the country lying eaſt of theſe mountains—the river runs nearly a ſtraight courſe ſouth-weſt, under the foot of the mountains, to Tiverton on Narraganſett Bay. Concord river is formed by three branches, one iſſuing from Framingham pond, and the other two from the mountains about Marlborough. Theſe ſtreams united run north, and fall into the Merrimack river a little below Pantucket falls.

Myſtic and Medford rivers run from north to ſouth into Boſton harbour. Ipſwich river, riſing in Wilmington in Middleſex county, runs eaſt and then north-eaſt into the Atlantic, at Ipſwich. Weſtfield river, from the north-weſt, empties into Connecticut river at Springfield. A little above, the Chicabee from the north-eaſt empties into the ſame river. Deerfield river riſes in Vermont, and running ſouthwardly through Wilmington, Charlemont, and between Shelburne and Conway, enters and paſſes through a large tract of the fineſt meadow in the world. In theſe meadows it receives Green river, from the mountains, which is about four rods wide; hence they paſs on together, in a broad ſmooth ſtream, about three miles into Connecticut river.

Capes] The only Capes of note on the coaſt of Maſſachuſetts, are Cape Ann on the north ſide of Boſton Bay, and Cape Cod on the ſouth. The latter is the terminating hook of a promontory, which extends far into the ſea, and is remarkable for having been the firſt land which was made by the firſt ſettlers of Plymouth on the American coaſt in 1620. In the barb of the hook, which is made by the Cape, is Cape Cod harbour. This promontory circumſcribes Barnſtable Bay, and forms Barnſtable county. This county is almoſt an iſland. The Iſthmus which connects it to the continent, is between Sandwich Bay on the north, and Buzzards Bay on the ſouth. The diſtance between them is but ſix or ſeven miles. Herring brook almoſt croſſes this neck or iſthmus, ſo that a canal of about one mile only would inſulate the county, and ſave ſeveral hundred miles dangerous navigation in paſſing from Newport to Boſton, and be otherwiſe of immenſe advantage to trade. Such a canal has been *talked* of for more than an hundred years paſt. The eaſtern coaſt of this promontory is ſubject to continual changes. Large tracts of ſand bank, in the courſe of forty or fifty years, by the conſtant accumulation of ſand and mud, occaſioned by the coil and recoil of the tides, have been transformed into ſolid marſh land. The ſand banks extend two hundred miles into the ſea, forming dangerous ſhoals.

Iſlands.] Among other iſlands which border upon this coaſt, are Kappawak, Martha's Vineyard and Nantucket. Kappawak, now Dukes county, and the neighbouring iſles, were diſcovered as early as 1602, by Bartholomew Goſnold. In honour of Queen Elizabeth, he called a cluſter of ſmall iſlands near the cape, Elizabeth iſles. To another neighbouring iſland he gave the name of Martha's Vineyard. Dukes county is twenty miles in length, and about four in breadth. It contains ſeven

pariſhes.

pariſhes. Edgarton, which includes the iſland Chabaquidick, is the ſhire town. This little iſland is about half a mile from the harbour, and renders it very ſecure. This county is full of inhabitants, who, like their neighbours at Nantucket, ſubſiſt principally by fiſhing. They ſend three repreſentatives to the general aſſembly, and one ſenator.

Nantucket lies ſouth of Cape Cod, and is conſiderably leſs than Dukes county. It contains, according to Douglaſs, 23,000 acres, including the beech. No mention is made of the diſcovery and ſettlement of this iſland, under its preſent name, by any of our hiſtorians. It is more than probable, that this is the iſland which is uſually called Nautican by ancient voyagers. It formerly had the moſt conſiderable whale fiſhery on the coaſt; but the war almoſt ruined them. They are now beginning to revive their former buſineſs. Moſt of the inhabitants are whalers and fiſher-men. As the iſland is low, ſandy and barren, it is calculated only for thoſe people who are willing to depend almoſt entirely on the watery element for ſubſiſtence. The iſland of itſelf conſtitutes one county, by the name of Nantucket. It has but one town, called Sherburne, and ſends one repreſentative to the general aſſembly.

Light-Houſes] Within the State of Maſſachuſetts are the following Light-Houſes: on Plumb iſland, near Newbury, are two, which muſt be brought to bear in a line with each other, in order to paſs the bar in ſafety: On Thatchers iſland, off Cape Ann, two lights of equal height. Another ſtands on a rock on the north ſide of the entrance of Boſton harbour, with one ſingle light. On the north point of Plymouth harbour are two lights, one over the other. On a point at the entrance of the harbour on the iſland of Nantucket, is one with a ſingle light. This light may be ſeen as far as Nantucket ſhoals extend. The iſland being low, the light appears over it.

Religion.] The religion of this commonwealth is eſtabliſhed, by their excellent conſtitution, on a moſt liberal and tolerant plan. All perſons, of whatever religious profeſſion or ſentiments, may worſhip God agreeably to the dictates of their own conſciences, unmoleſted, provided they do not diſturb the public peace. The legiſlature are empowered to require of the ſeveral towns, pariſhes, &c. to provide, at their own expence, for the public worſhip of God, and to require the attendance of the ſubject on the ſame. The people have liberty to chooſe their own teachers, and to contract with them for their ſupport.

The body of the churches in this ſtate are eſtabliſhed upon the congregational plan. Their rules of church diſcipline and government are, in general, founded upon the Cambridge platform, as drawn up by the ſynod of 1648. The churches claim no juriſdiction over each other, and the power of eccleſiaſtical councils is only adviſory.

The following ſtatement, ſhews what are the ſeveral religious denominations in this ſtate, and their proportional numbers.

Denominations.

Denominations.	Number of Congregations.	Suppoſed number of each denomination.
Congregationaliſts,	400	277,600
Baptiſts,	84	58,296
Epiſcopalians,	16	11,104
Friends or Quakers,	10	6,940
Preſbyterians,	4	2,776
Univerſaliſts,	1	694
Total	515	357,410

In this ſtatement it is ſuppoſed that all the inhabitants in the ſtate conſider themſelves as belonging to one or the other of the religious denominations mentioned; and that each religious ſociety, of every denomination, is compoſed of an equal number of ſouls; that is, each is ſuppoſed to contain 694, which, if we reckon the number of inhabitants in the ſtate at 357,511, will be the proportion for each congregation. Although this may not be an exact apportionment of the different ſects, yet it is perhaps as accurate as the nature of the ſubject will allow, and ſufficient to give a general idea of the proportion which the ſeveral denominations bear to each other.

The number of congregational churches in 1749 was 250.

In 1760, the number of inhabitants in this ſtate, was about 268,850. The proportion of the ſects then was nearly as follows, viz.

Sects.	Congregations.	Suppoſed number of ſouls of each ſect.
Congregationaliſts,	306	225,426
Friends meetings,	22	16,192
Baptiſts,	20	14,723
Epiſcopalians,	13	9,568
Preſbyterians,	4	2,944
Total	365	268,850

The congregational miniſters in this ſtate, have an annual meeting at Boſton, the Thurſday following the laſt Wedneſday in May, on which occaſion a ſermon is preached, and a collection made for the relief and ſupport of ſuch of their ſociety as are in needy circumſtances. This collection is chiefly applied to the ſupport of the widows of deceaſed miniſters.

Civil Diviſions.] The commonwealth of Maſſachuſetts is divided into fourteen counties, and ſub-divided into 355 townſhips. The following table exhibits a comparative view of the population—agricultural improvements—military ſtrength, &c. of the ſeveral counties, together with their ſea-ports and principal trading towns.

TABLE.

TABLE.

COUNTIES.	Inhabitants. Number of	Land. improved Acres of	Ditto unimproved.	Horses of all ages *. Number of	horned cattle of all kinds. Number of	†Number of fighting men
Suffolk,	36,783	105,635½	77,556	729	19,271	7356
Eſſex,	48,723	171,893¾	47,801	4195	28,317	9744
Middleſex,	34,823	163,834¾	199,548	5217	32,675	6964
Hampſhire,	43,143	142,375	671,344	8442	39,904	8628
Plymouth,	25,016	92,513¾	129,191	2784	20,552	5003
Barnſtable,	13,353	39,202¼	45,720	930	8071	2670
Dukes, (iſland)	3110	18,198	12,172	312	2043	622
Nantucket, (an iſland)	4269	16,092	1431	219	583	Chiefly quakers
Briſtol,	25,640	97,360	130,767	2958	17,860	5130
York,	20,509	66,142	264,931	2101	18,719	4102
Worceſter,	47,614	207,430	520,236	8321	51,369	9523
Cumberland,	14,714	53,865	260,693	1635	14,588	2943
Lincoln,	15,270	45,803	799,970	1712	15,699	3054
Berkſhire,	24,544	87,028	234,497	6762	18,378	4909
Total	357,511	1,087,373	3,185,857	40,417	286,990	70,648

* *This valuation was taken in* 1784, *and ſuppoſed to be* leſs *than the reality.*

† *This eſtimate is very imperfect—No account having been taken for near twelve years.*

Number

Number of townships.	Number of congregational places of worship.	Do. Baptists.	Ditto other denominations.	Sea-ports and principal trading towns.	Towns where the courts are held.
23	32	7	3	Boston.	Boston.
22	54	2	8	Salem, Newbury Port, Marblehead, Beverly, Glouceſter or C. Ann Haverhill, Ipſwich.	Salem, Ipſwich and Newbury Port.
40	47	3	1	Charleſton.	Cambridge, Concord
60	58	11	4	An inland county.	Springfield, Northampton, Hadley & Deerfield.
14	27	4	1	Plymouth, Rocheſter.	Plymouth.
10	14	3	1	The C. of Barnſtable is ſurrounded by the ſea, therefore every T. has a ſmall port and trade.	Barnſtable.
3	5	2		Edgartown.	Edgartown, Tiſbury.
1	1		1	Sherburne.	Sherburne.
14	13	20	4	New Bedford, Dighton.	Taunton.
21	23	4	1	York, Pepperelbro', Biddeford	York, Biddeford.
49	53	13	3	(Inland.)	Worceſter.
20	20	3	2	Portland.	Portland.
53	29	2	1	Bath, Booth bay Goldſboro, Paſſamaquady, Machias, Penobſcot, Wiſcaſſet.	Pownalboro, Waldoboro and Hallowell.
25	24	10	1	(Inland.)	Lenox.
355	400	84	31		

Population, Character, &c] The above table exhibits an accurate account of the population of this ſtate. The moſt populous parts of the ſtate are included between the ſea-coaſt, and a line drawn parallel to it at the diſtance of ten or twelve miles; and between two lines drawn parallel to Connecticut river on each ſide, at the diſtance of five or ſix miles.

Character, &c. ſee New-England.

Literary

Literary and humane Societies.] The literary, humane and charitable inſtitutions in Maſſachuſetts, exhibit a fair trait in the character of the inhabitants. Among the firſt literary inſtitutions in this ſtate, is the AMERICAN ACADEMY OF ARTS AND SCIENCES, incorporated May 4th, 1780. It is declared in the act, that the end and deſign of the inſtitution, is to promote and encourage the knowledge of the antiquities of America, and of the natural hiſtory of the country, and to determine the uſes to which the various natural productions of the country may be applied. Alſo to promote and encourage medical diſcoveries, mathematical diſquiſitions, philoſophical enquiries and experiments; aſtronomical, meteorological and geographical obſervations; improvements in agriculture, arts, manufacture, commerce, and the cultivation of every ſcience that may tend to advance a free, independent, and virtuous people. There are never to be more than two hundred members, nor leſs than forty. This ſociety has four ſtated annual meetings.

The MASSACHUSETTS CHARITABLE SOCIETY, incorporated December 16, 1779, is intended for the mutual aid of themſelves and families, who may be diſtreſſed by any of the adverſe accidents of life, and for the comforting and relieving of widows and orphans of their deceaſed members. The members of this ſociety meet annually, and are not to exceed an hundred in number.

The BOSTON EPISCOPAL CHARITABLE SOCIETY, firſt inſtituted in 1724, and incorporated February 12, 1784, has for its object, charity to ſuch as are of the epiſcopal church, and to ſuch others as the ſociety ſhall think fit; but more eſpecially the relief of thoſe who are members of, and benefactors to the ſociety, and afterwards become ſuitable objects of its charity. The members of this ſociety meet annually, and are not to exceed one hundred in number.

The MASSACHUSETTS MEDICAL SOCIETY, was incorporated November 1, 1781. The deſign of this inſtitution is, to promote medical and ſurgical knowledge; enquiries into the animal œconomy, and the properties and effects of medicine, by encouraging a free intercourſe with the gentlemen of the faculty throughout the United States of America, and a friendly correſpondence with the eminent in thoſe profeſſions throughout the world; as well as to make a juſt diſcrimination between ſuch as are duly educated and properly qualified for the duties thereof, and thoſe who may ignorantly and wickedly adminiſter medicine, whereby the health and lives of many valuable individuals may be endangered, and perhaps loſt to the community.

Further to evidence their humanity and benevolence, a number of the medical and other gentlemen, in the town of Boſton, in 1785, formed a ſociety, by the name of the HUMANE SOCIETY, for the purpoſe of recovering perſons apparently dead, from drowning, ſuffocation, ſtrangling, and other accidents. This Humane Society have erected three huts, furniſhed with wood, tinder boxes, blankets, &c. one on Lovel's Iſland in Boſton harbour, one on Nantaſket beach, and another on Situate beach near Marſhfield, for the comfort of ſhip-wrecked ſeamen. Huts of the ſame kind are erected on Plumb-Iſland, near Newbury, by the Marine Society of that place; and there are alſo ſome contiguous to Hampton and Saliſbury beach.

At

At their ſemiannual meetings, a public diſcourſe is delivered by ſome perſon appointed by the truſtees for that purpoſe, on ſome medical ſubject connected with the principal object of the ſociety; and as a ſtimulus to inveſtigation, and a reward of merit, a medal is adjudged annually, by the preſident and truſtees, to the perſon who exhibits the moſt approved diſſertation.

The SOCIETY FOR PROPAGATING THE GOSPEL among the Indians and others in North America, was incorporated November 19, 1787. They are enabled to receive ſubſcriptions of charitably diſpoſed perſons, and may take any perſonal eſtate in ſucceſſion. All donations to the ſociety, either by ſubſcriptions, legacy or otherwiſe, excepting ſuch as may be differently appropriated by the donors, to make a part of, or be put into the capital ſtock of the ſociety, which is to be put out on intereſt on good ſecurity, or otherwiſe improved to the beſt advantage, and the income and profits are to be applied to the purpoſes aforeſaid, in ſuch manner as the ſociety ſhall judge moſt conducive to anſwer the deſign of their inſtitution.

This Society is formed into a board of commiſſioners from the Scot's Society for promoting Chriſtian Knowledge among the Indians in America.

Next to Pennſylvania, this ſtate has the greateſt number of ſocieties for the promotion of uſeful knowledge and human happineſs; and as they are founded on the broad baſis of *benevolence* and *charity*, they cannot fail to proſper. Theſe inſtitutions, which are faſt encreaſing in almoſt every ſtate in the union, are ſo many evidences of the advanced and advancing ſtate of civilization and improvement in this country. They prove, likewiſe, that a free republican government, like ours, is of all others the moſt happily calculated to promote a general diffuſion of uſeful knowledge, and the moſt favourable to the benevolent and humane feelings of the human heart.

Literature, Colleges, Academies, &c.] According to the laws of this Commonwealth, every town having fifty houſholders or upwards, is to be conſtantly provided with a ſchool-maſter, to teach children and youth to read and write; and where any town has 100 families, there is alſo to be a grammar-ſchool ſet up therein, and ſome diſcreet perſon, well inſtructed in the language, procured to keep the ſame, and be ſuitably paid by the inhabitants.

Theſe laws reſpecting ſchools, are not ſo well regarded in many parts of the ſtate, as the wiſe purpoſes which they were intended to anſwer, and the happineſs of the people, require.

Next in importance to the Grammar Schools are the Academies, in which, as well as in the Grammar Schools, young gentlemen are fitted for admiſſion to the Univerſity.

DUMMER ACADEMY, at Newbury, was founded many years ſince, by means of a liberal donation from the Honourable William Dummer, formerly Lieutenant Governor, and a worthy man, whoſe name it has ever ſince retained. It was incorporated in 1782, and is under the ſuperintendence of fourteen reſpectable truſtees.

PHILLIPS'S ACADEMY, at Andover, owes its exiſtence to the benefactions of the Honourable Samuel Phillips, Eſq; of Andover, in the county

county of Eſſex, and State of Maſſachuſetts Bay, and the Honourable John Phillips, Eſq; of Exeter, in the county of Rockingham, and State of New-Hampſhire. It was incorporated October 4, 1780, and has twelve truſtees.

LEICESTER ACADEMY, in the townſhip of Leiceſter, was incorporated in 1784. For the encouragement of this inſtitution, Ebenezer Crafts and Jacob Davis, Eſqrs; generouſly gave a large and commodious manſion-houſe, lands and appurtenances in Leiceſter, for that uſe.

At William's-Town, in Berkſhire county, is another Academy, which is yet in its infancy. Colonel Ephraim Williams has made a handſome donation in lands, for its encouragement and ſupport.

At Hingham is a well endowed ſchool, or Academy, which, in honour of its principal donor and founder, is called DERBY SCHOOL.

Theſe Academies have very handſome funds, and are flouriſhing The deſigns of the truſtees are, to diſſeminate virtue and true piety, to promote the education of youth in the Engliſh, Latin, Greek, and French languages, to encourage their inſtruction in writing, arithmetic, oratory, geography, practical geometry, logic, philoſophy, and ſuch other of the liberal arts and ſciences, or languages, as may be thought expedient

HARVARD COLLEGE (now UNIVERSITY) takes its date from the year 1638. Two years before, the general court gave four hundred pounds for the ſupport of a public ſchool at Newtown, which has ſince been called Cambridge. This year (1638) the Rev. Mr. John Harvard, a worthy miniſter reſiding in Charleſton, died, and left a donation of £.779 for the uſe of the forementioned public ſchool. In honour to the memory of ſo liberal a benefactor, the general court the ſame year, ordered that the ſchool ſhould take the name of HARVARD COLLEGE.

In 1642, the College was put upon a more reſpectable footing, and the governor, deputy governor and magiſtrates, and the miniſters of the ſix next adjacent towns, with the preſident, were erected into a corporation for the ordering and managing its concerns. This year nine young gentlemen received the decree of Batchelor of Arts. It received its firſt charter in 1650.

Cambridge, in which the univerſity is ſituated, is a pleaſant village, four miles weſtward from Boſton, containing a number of gentlemens ſeats, which are neat and well built. The univerſity conſiſts of four elegant brick edifices, handſomely encloſed. They ſtand on a beautiful green, which ſpreads to the north-weſt, and exhibit a pleaſing view.

The names of the ſeveral buildings are, Harvard-Hall, Maſſachuſetts-Hall, Hollis-Hall, and Holden-Chapel Harvard-Hall is divided into ſix apartments; one of which is appropriated for the library, one for the muſeum, two for the philoſophical apparatus, one is uſed for a chapel, and the other for a dining hall. The library, in 1787, conſiſted of 12,000 volumes; and will be continually increaſing from the intereſt of permanent funds, as well as from caſual benefactions. The philoſophical apparatus belonging to this univerſity, coſt between 1400 and £.1500 lawful money, and is the moſt elegant and complete of any in America.

Agreeable to the preſent conſtitution of Maſſachuſetts, his excellency the governor, lieutenant governor, the council and ſenate, the preſident of the univerſity, and the miniſters of the congregational churches in the town

towns of Boſton, Charleſton, Cambridge, Waterton, Roxbury, and Dorcheſter, are *ex officiis*, overſeers of the Univerſity.

The corporation is a diſtinct body, conſiſting of ſeven members, in whom is veſted the property of the univerſity.

The inſtructors in the univerſity are, a preſident, Holliſian profeſſor of divinity, Holliſian profeſſor of the mathematics and natural philoſophy, Hancock profeſſor of oriental languages, profeſſor of anatomy and ſurgery, profeſſor of the theory and practice of phyſic, profeſſor of chymiſtry and materia medica, and four tutors.

This univerſity as to its library, philoſophical apparatus, and profeſſorſhips, is at preſent the firſt literary inſtitution on this continent. Since its firſt eſtabliſhment, 3146 ſtudents have received honorary degrees from its ſucceſſive officers; 1002 of whom have been ordained to the work of the goſpel miniſtry. It has generally from 120 to 150 ſtudents.

Chief towns.] BOSTON is the capital, not only of Maſſachuſetts, but of New-England. It is built on a peninſula of an irregular form, at the bottom of Maſſachuſetts Bay. The neck, or iſthmus which joins the peninſula to the continent, is at the ſouth end of the town, and leads to Roxbury. The length of the town, including the neck, is about three miles; the town itſelf is not quite two miles. Its breadth is various. At the entrance from Roxbury it is narrow. The greateſt breadth is one mile and 139 yards. The buildings in the town cover about 1000 acres. It contains near 1800 dwelling-houſes.

By a late computation, the number of inhabitants was found to be 14,640, of theſe 6,570 were males, and 8,070 females. This number is excluſive of ſtrangers and tranſient perſons, who make nearly one third of the whole number of ſouls in Boſton. The ratable polls, at the time of the cenſus, were about 2,620. In this town there are ſeventy-nine ſtreets, thirty-eight lanes, and twenty-one alleys, excluſive of ſquares and courts; and about eighty wharfs and quays, very convenient for veſſels. The principal wharf extends 600 yards into the ſea, and is covered on the north ſide with large and convenient ſtores. It far exceeds any other wharf in the United States.

In Boſton are ſixteen houſes for publick worſhip; of which nine are for congregationaliſts, three for epiſcopalians, two for baptiſts, one for the friends, and one for univerſaliſts, or independents. There is one old meeting-houſe deſolate and in ruins, in School-ſtreet.

The other public buildings are the ſtate-houſe, Faneuil-hall, an alms houſe, a workhouſe, and a bridewell. That building which was formerly the governor's houſe, is now occupied in its ſeveral apartments, by the council, the treaſurer, and the ſecretary; the two latter hold their offices in it. The public granary is converted into a ſtore, and the linen manufactory houſe is now occupied by the bank. Moſt of the public buildings are handſome, and ſome of them are elegant. The town is irregularly built, but, as it lies in a circular form around the harbour, it exhibits a very handſome view as you approach it from the ſea. On the weſt ſide of the town is the mall, a very beautiful public walk, adorned with rows of trees, and in view of the common, which is always open to refreſhing breezes. Beacon hill, which overlooks the town from the weſt, affords a fine variegated proſpect.

The harbour of Boſton is ſafe, and large enough to contain 500 ſhips

at anchor, in a good depth of water; while the entrance is so narrow as scarcely to admit two ships abreast. It is diversified with many islands, which afford rich pasturing, hay and grain. About three miles from the town is the castle, which commands the entrance of the harbour. Here are mounted about forty pieces of heavy artillery, besides a large number of a smaller size. The fort is garrisoned by a company of about fifty soldiers, who also guard the convicts that are sentenced, and sent here to labour. These are all employed in the nail manufactory.

In Boston there are two grammar schools, and four for writing, &c. whose masters are supported by the town; besides twelve or fourteen private schools.

It has been computed, that during the siege in 1775, as many houses were destroyed in Boston by the British troops, as were burnt in Charlestown. Since the peace, a spirit of repairs and improvement has diffused itself among the inhabitants. A few years may render the metropolis of Massachusetts as famed for arts, manufactures, and commerce, as any city in the United States.

The town next to Boston, in point of numbers and commercial importance, is Salem. This town was settled as early as 1628, by Mr. Endicot, afterwards governor, and a colony under his direction. It is the oldest town in the state, except Plymouth, which was settled eight years before. In 1786, it contained 646 dwelling-houses, and 6700 inhabitants. In this town are five churches for congregationalists, one for episcopalians, and a meeting-house for the friends. Its harbour is inferior to that of Boston. The inhabitants, notwithstanding, carry on a large foreign trade. Salem is fifteen miles north-eastward of Boston, and is considered as the metropolis of the county of Essex.

Newbury Port, forty-five miles eastward from Boston, is situated on the southwest side of Merrimak river, about two miles from the sea. The town is about a mile in length, and a fourth of a mile in breadth, and contains 450 dwelling-houses, and 4113 natural inhabitants. It has one episcopal, one prethyterian, and two congregational churches. The business of ship building is largely carried on here. These towns, with Marblehead, Gloucester or Cape Ann, and Beverly, carry on the fishery, which furnishes the principal article of exportation from Massachusetts.

Worcester is one of the largest inland towns in New-England. It is the shire town of Worcester county, and is about forty-seven miles westward of Boston.

On Connecticut river, in the county of Hampshire, are a number of very pleasant towns. Of these Springfield is the oldest and largest. It stands on the east side of Connecticut river, about ninety-six miles westward of Boston. The courts are held here and at Northampton alternately. Within its ancient limits are about 700 families, who are divided into eight worshipping assemblies. The original township has been divided into six parishes, some of which have been incorporated into distinct townships. The settlement of Springfield was b gun in 1636, by William Pynchon, Esq; whose descendants are still living in the place. He called the place Springfield, in remembrance of his native place in England, which bore that name.

Hadley is a neat little town on the opposite side of the river from Northampton.

Northampton,

Northampton, Hatfield, and Deerfield are all pleaſant, flouriſhing towns, ſucceeding each other as you travel northerly on the weſt ſide of the river.

Conſtitution.] The conſtitution of the Commonwealth of Maſſachuſetts, eſtabliſhed in 1780, contains a declaration of rights and a frame of government. The declaration aſſerts the natural freedom and equality of men—Liberty of conſcience—Freedom of the preſs—Trial by jury—Sovereignty and independence—that all power is derived from the people—that hereditary honours and emoluments are inadmiſſible—that every ſubject is entitled to protection of life, liberty, and property—and, in return, muſt obey the laws and pay his proportion of the common expence—that he ſhall not be obliged to accuſe himſelf; but may be heard in his own defence—that he may keep arms; but ſtanding armies ſhall not be maintained in time of peace—that no tax ſhall be levied without the conſent of the people by their repreſentatives—that no ex poſt facto law ſhall be made—that the martial law ſhall extend only to men in actual military ſervice—that the legiſlative, executive, and judiciary powers ſhall be kept diſtinct, &c. By the frame of government, the power of legiſlation is lodged in a general court, conſiſting of two branches, viz. a ſenate and a houſe of repreſentatives, each having a negative upon the other. They meet annually on the laſt Tueſday in May. No act can be paſſed without the approbation of the governor, unleſs two-thirds of both branches are in favour of it. Either branch, or the governor and council, may require the opinion of the juſtices of the ſupreme judicial court, upon important queſtions. Senators are choſen by diſtricts, of which there cannot be leſs than thirteen. The number of counſellors and ſenators, for the whole commonwealth, is forty; the number of each diſtrict is in proportion to their public taxes; but no diſtrict ſhall be ſo large, as to have more than ſix. Sixteen ſenators make a quorum. The repreſentatives are choſen by the ſeveral towns, according to their numbers of rateable polls. For 150 polls one is elected; and for every addition of 225, an additional one. Their travelling expences to and from the general court, are defrayed by the public, but their wages for attendance are paid by their own towns. Impeachments, for miſconduct in office, are made by the repreſentatives, and tried by the ſenate; but the judgment can go only to removal from office and future diſqualification. Money bills originate in the houſe of repreſentatives, but may be altered by the ſenate. Repreſentatives are privileged from arreſts on meſne proceſs. Sixty members make a quorum. The ſupreme executive authority is veſted in a governor, who is elected annually by the people, and has a council conſiſting of the lieutenant-governor, and nine gentlemen choſen out of the forty, who are returned for counſellors and ſenators. Five counſellors make a quorum. The governor is commander of all the military force of the commonwealth. He may convene the general court, may adjourn them, when the two branches diſagree about the time, and in their receſs, may prorogue them from time to time, not exceeding ninety days—may pardon convicts, but the legiſlature alone can grant pardons before conviction. He commiſſions all officers, and, with advice of council, appoints all judicial officers. Military officers are thus appointed; the reſpective companies chooſe their captain and ſubalterns, who chooſe their regimental officers, who chooſe

their brigadiers. The major-generals are appointed by the general court. Juſtices of the peace are commiſſioned for ſeven years; all other judicial, and all executive and military offices, continue during good behaviour, yet are removeable by the governor, upon addreſs of the legiſlature. The ſalaries of governor and juſtices of the ſupreme court, cannot be diminiſhed, although they may be enlarged. Official qualifications are as follow—for a voter, twenty-one year's age, one year's reſidence, a freehold of three pounds annual value, or ſixty pounds of any other eſtate—for a repreſentative, £ 100 freehold, or £.200 other eſtate, and one year's reſidence in the town—for a ſenator, £.300 freehold, or £.600 other eſtate in the commonwealth, and five years reſidence in the diſtrict—for governor, or lieutenant-governor, £.1000 freehold, and ſeven years reſidence. Every governor, lieutenant-governor, counſellor, ſenator, or repreſentative, muſt declare that he believes the Chriſtian religion, and has the legal qualifications. A governor, lieutenant-governor, or juſtice of the ſupreme court can hold no other office. No man ſhall hold two of theſe offices, judge of probate, ſheriff, regiſter. No juſtices of the ſupreme court, ſecretary, attorney-general, treaſurer, judge of probate, inſtructor of Harvard College, clerk, regiſter, ſheriff, or cuſtom officer can have a ſeat in the legiſlature. The privilege of Habeas Corpus cannot be ſuſpended more than a year at one time. In 1795, if two-thirds of the qualified voters deſire it, a convention ſhall be called to reviſe the conſtitution.

Bridges.] The principal bridge in this ſtate, or in any of the United States, is that which was built over Charles river, between Boſton and Charleſton, in 1786.

The following is an accurate deſcription of this convenient and handſome ſtructure:

		Feet.
	The abutment at Charleſton, from the old landing, is	100
	Space to the firſt pier,	16 ½
36	Piers at an equal diſtance, to draw,	522 ½
	Width of the draw,	30
39	Piers at equal diſtance,	672
75	The whole number of piers.	
	Spaces to the abutment at Boſton,	16 ½
	Abutment at Boſton to the old landing,	45 ½
	Whole length,	1503

Each pier is compoſed of ſeven ſticks of oak timber, united by a cap-piece, ſtrong braces and girts, and afterwards driven into the bed of the river, and firmly ſecured by a ſingle pile on each ſide, driven obliquely to a ſolid bottom. The piers are connected to each other by large ſtring pieces, which are covered with four-inch plank. The bridge is 43 feet in width, and on each ſide is accommodated with a paſſage ſix feet wide, railed in for the ſafety of people on foot. The bridge has a gradual riſe from each end, ſo as to be two feet higher in the middle than at the extremities. Forty elegant lamps are erected at a ſuitable diſtance from each other,

other, to illuminate it when neceſſary. There are four ſtrong ſtone wharfs, connected with three piers each, ſunk in various parts of the river.

The draw is conſtructed on the moſt approved plan; the machinery is very ſimple; and it is deſigned to require the ſtrength of two men only in raiſing it. The floor on the bridge at the higheſt tides, is four feet above the water, which generally riſes about twelve or fourteen feet.

This bridge was completed in thirteen months; and while it exhibits the greateſt effect of private enterprize within the United States, is a moſt pleaſing proof, how certainly objects of magnitude may be attained by ſpirited exertions.

Another bridge, of a ſimilar conſtruction, has been erected over Myſtic river at Malden; and another is now building at Beverly, which will connect that flouriſhing little town with Salem. Theſe are works of much enterprize, ingenuity and public ſpirit; and ſerve to ſhew that architecture, in this ſtate, has riſen to a high pitch of improvement. It is a conſideration not unworthy of being here noticed, that while many other nations are waſting the brilliant efforts of genius in monuments of ingenious folly, to perpetuate their pride; the Americans, according to the true ſpirit of republicaniſm, are employed almoſt entirely in works of public and private utility.

Trade, Manufactures and Agriculture.] In the year 1787, the exports from this ſtate exceeded their imports; and it is more than probable that, from the rapid increaſe of manufactural and agricultural improvements, and the prevailing ſpirit of induſtry and œconomy, the balance in favour of the ſtate will be annually increaſed. The exports from the port of Boſton, the year paſt, (Auguſt 1788) conſiſting of fiſh, oil, New England rum, lumber of various kinds, pot and pearl-aſhes, flax-ſeed, furs, pork, beef, corn, flour, butter, cheeſe, beans, peas, bar-iron, hallow, ware, bricks, whale-bone, tallow and ſpermaceti candies, ſoap, loaf-ſugar, wool-cards, leather, ſhoes, naval ſtores, ginſeng, tobacco, bolts, duck, hemp, cordage, nails, &c. amount to upwards of £.345,000 lawful money, New England rum, pot-aſh, lumber, fiſh, and the produce of the fiſhery, are the principal articles of export. No leſs than 4783 hogſheads of New England rum were diſtilled and exported from this ſtate laſt year, beſides the home conſumption, which was not inconſiderable *.

* *New England rum is diſtilled from molaſſes imported from the Weſt Indies. It may be a queſtion worthy of conſideration, whether the molaſſes which is annually diſtilled in New England, by being mixed with water, would not afford a drink cheaper, more palatable, and more nouriſhing, than that which is made from the rum diſtilled from it, and treble in quantity? If ſo, all the labour and expence of diſtillation might be ſpared, and converted to more uſeful, and perhaps to more lucrative manufactural or agricultural purpoſes. New England rum is by no means a wholeſome liquor. Dr. Douglaſs has aſſerted. 'That it has killed more Indians than their wars and ſickneſſes. It does not ſpare white people, eſpecially when made into* flip, *which is rum mixed with ſmall beer and Muſcovado ſugar.'*

Now

New markets for the produce of this, and the other ſtates, are continually increaſing. The Cape of Good Hope, the Iſle of France, Surat, Batavia and Canton, have lately opened their ports to receive the articles of beef, pork, bacon, butter, cheeſe, timber, ginſeng, and ſeveral others. To Great-Britain are ſent pot and pearl aſhes, ſtaves, flax-ſeed, bees-wax, &c. To the Weſt-Indies, lumber, fiſh, pork, beef, flour, &c. The whale, cod, and mackarel fiſheries, employ a great number of hands, and yield a handſome profit The *Negro* trade is totally prohibited in Maſſachuſetts, by an act paſſed in the winter of 1788.

Annual improvements are made in agriculture, chiefly by gentlemen of fortune. The common huſbandmen in the country, generally chooſe to continue in the old track of their foreſathers. The Academy of Arts and Sciences have a committee, by the name of the 'Agricultural Committee,' whoſe buſineſs it is to receive and communicate any uſeful information upon that ſubject.

In this ſtate are manufactured pot and pearl-aſhes, linſeed oil, bar and caſt iron, cannon, cordage, ſpermaceti oil and candles, and many ſmaller articles, ſuch as linen, woollen and cotten cloth, hoſiery, hats, ſhoes, tools and inſtruments of huſbandry, wool-cards, ſnuff, clocks, cutlery, muſkets, cabinet-work, &c. The town of Lynn is particularly famous for the manufacture of womens ſilk and ſtuff ſhoes. It is computed that they make 170,000 pair of them annually. Theſe are exported to various parts or the union.

A cotton manufactuory has lately been eſtabliſhed at Beverly, which bids fair to be productive of advantages to the town.

An aſſociation of the tradeſmen and manufacturers of the town of Boſton, has lately been formed, conſiſting of a repreſentative from each branch. In this body the whole manufacturing intereſt of that patriotic town is combined. By a circular letter of Auguſt 20th, they have ſtrongly recommended the ſame procedure to their brethren in the ſeveral ſea-ports in the union. This aſſociation will doubtleſs be productive of happy effects.

Ship-building, after a long ſtagnation ſince the peace, now begins to revive in various maritime parts of the ſtate. Preparations are making for a glaſs-houſe in Boſton.

Mr. Joſeph Pope, of Boſton, has conſtructed a large, complete and elegant *Planetarium*, ſix feet in diameter. This is entirely a work of original genius and aſſiduous application, as Mr. Pope never ſaw any machine of the kind but his own. It exhibits a proof of great ſtrength of mind, and really does him much honour.

Revenue and Taxes.] The principal ſources of revenue are land and poll-taxes, impoſts, exciſes, and the ſales of new lands. Taxes are levied on all males between ſixteen and fifty, except ſuch as are exempted by law—alſo on the number of acres of improved and unimproved land—on dwelling-houſes and barns, warehouſes, ſtores, &c theſe are all valued, and upon this valuation taxes are laid, ſo many pounds for every £.1000.

Mines and Minerals] In Attleborough is a magnetic iron ore; it yields a red ſhot iron, not good. In Attleborough Gore is ſome copper ore, but ſo intermixed with the iron rock ore, as to render bot unprofitable.

Alum

Alum ſlate, or ſtone, has been found in ſome parts; alſo ruddle, or red earth, which ſerves to mark ſheep, and may be uſed as a ground colour for priming, inſtead of Spaniſh brown. Several mines of black lead have been diſcovered in Brimfield, and the neighbouring places; and white pipe clay, and yellow and red ochre, at Martha's Vineyard. There is a valuable copper mine at Leverett, in the county of Hampſhire, lately diſcovered; and at Newbury are beds of lime-ſtone and aſbeſtos.

Hiſtory.] On the 19th of March, 1627, the Plymouth council ſealed a patent to Sir Henry Roſwell, and five others, of all that part of New England, included between a line drawn three miles ſouth of Charles river, and another three miles north of Merimak river, from the Atlantic to the South Sea *. This patent gave a good right to the ſoil, but no powers of government. A royal charter was neceſſary. This paſſed the ſeals March 4th, 1628. Until this year, a few ſcattering ſettlements only had been made in Maſſachuſetts Bay. In the ſummer of 1627, Mr. Endicot, one of the original planters, with a ſmall colony, was ſent over to begin a plantation at Naumkeag, (now Salem.) The June following, about 200 perſons, furniſhed with four miniſters †, came over and joined Mr. Endicot's colony; and the next year they formed themſelves into a regular church. This was the firſt church gathered in Maſſachuſetts, and the ſecond in New England. The church at Plymouth had been gathered eight years before. In 1629, a larger embarkation was projected by the company in England; and at the requeſt of a number of reſpectable gentlemen, moſt of whom afterwards came over to New England, the general conſent of the company was obtained, that the government and patent ſhould be transferred and ſettled in Maſſachuſetts.

In 1630, ſeventeen ſhips from different ports in England, arrived in Maſſachuſetts, with more than 1500 paſſengers, among whom were many

* *This tract of country was called* MASSACHUSETTS BAY. *The Maſſachuſetts tribe of Indians lived around, and gave their name to the large bay at the bottom of this tract; hence the name Maſſachuſetts Bay. The Indian word is* Mais Tchuſaeg, *ſignifyinng the country this ſide the hills.*

The following extract from the epiſtle dedicatory to a ſermon preached at Plymouth, in 1620, *will ſhew the ideas then entertained reſpecting the ſituation of the* South Sea.

'*New England, ſo call'd, not only (to avoid novelties) becauſe Captain Smith hath ſo entituled it in his deſcription, but becauſe of the reſemblance that is in it of* England, *the native ſoil of Engliſhmen: it being much what the ſame for heat and cold in ſummer and winter, it being champion ground, but not high mountains, ſomewhat like the ſoil in* Kent *and* Eſſex; *full of dales, and meddow ground, full of rivers and ſweet ſprings, as* England *is. But principally, ſo far as we can yet find it is an iſland, and near about the quantity of* England, *being cut out from the maine land in* America, *as* England *is from the maine of* Europe, *by a great arm of the ſea, which entreth in forty degrees, and runneth up north-weſt and by weſt, and goeth out either into the South Sea, or elſe into the bay of* Canada.

† *Meſſrs. Higginſon, Skelton, Bright and Smith.*

perſons

perſons of diſtinction. Incredible were the hardſhips they endured. Expoſed to the relentleſs cruelties of the Indians, who, a few months before, had entered into a general conſpiracy to extirpate the Engliſh—reduced to a ſcanty pittance of proviſions, and that of a kind to which they had not been accuſtomed, and deſtitute of neceſſary accommodations, numbers ſickened and died: ſo that before the end of the year, they loſt 200 of their number. About this time ſettlements were made at Charleſton, Boſton, Dorcheſter, Cambridge, Roxbury and Medford. The firſt general court of Maſſachuſetts was held on the 19th of October, 1631, not by repreſentation, but by the freemen of the corporation at large. At this court, they agreed that, in future, the freemen ſhould chooſe the aſſiſtants, and that the aſſiſtants ſhould chooſe, from among themſelves, the governor and deputy governor. The court of aſſiſtants were to have the power of making laws, and appointing officers. This was a departure from their charter. One hundred and nine freemen were admitted this court. At the next general court of election, in the ſame year, the freemen, notwithſtanding their former vote, reſolved to chooſe their own governor, deputy, and aſſiſtants, and paſſed a moſt extraordinary law, 'that none but church members ſhould be admitted to the freedom of the body politic.' This law continued in force until the diſſolution of the government; with this alteration, however, that, inſtead of being church members, the candidates for freedom muſt have a certificate from the miniſter, that they were of orthodox principles, and of good lives and converſations.

In the years 1632 and 1633, great additions were made to the colony. Such was the rage for emigration to New England, that the king in council thought fit to iſſue an order, (February 7, 1633,) to prevent it. This order, however, was not ſtrictly obeyed; for this year came over Meſſrs. Cotton, Hooker and Stone, three of the moſt famous pillars of the church. Mr. Cotton ſettled at Boſton, and the other two at Cambridge. Mr. Hooker, and 100 others, removed in 1636, and ſettled at Hartford, on Connecticut river.

In 1634, twenty-four of the principal inhabitants appeared in the general court for elections, as the repreſentatives of the body of freemen, and reſolved, 'That none but the general court had power to make and eſtabliſh laws—to elect officers—to raiſe monies, and confirm properties; and determined that four general courts be held yearly, to be ſummoned by the governor, and not be diſſolved without the conſent of the major part of the court—that it be lawful for the freemen of each plantation to chooſe two or three perſons as their repreſentatives, to tranſact, on their behalf, the affairs of the commonwealth, &c. Thus was ſettled the legiſlative body, which, except an alteration of the number of general courts, which were ſoon reduced to two only in a year, and other not very material circumſtances, continued the ſame as long as the charter laſted.

In 1636 Mrs. Hutchinſon, a very extraordinary woman, who came to New England with Mr. Cotton, made great diſturbances in the churches. Two capital errors with which ſhe was charged, were, 'That the Holy Ghoſt dwells perſonally in a juſtified perſon; and that nothing of ſanctification,

fication, can help to evidence to believers their juſtification.' Diſputes ran high about the covenant of works, and the covenant of grace, and involved both the civil and religious affairs of the colony in great confuſion. The final reſult was, a ſynod was appointed to be held at Cambridge, in Auguſt, 1637, where were preſent both miniſters and meſſengers of churches and magiſtrates, who, after three weeks diſputing, condemned, as erroneous, above eighty points or opinions, ſaid to have been maintained by ſome or other in the country. The reſult was ſigned by all the members but Mr. Cotton. In conſequence of this, Mrs. Hutchinſon and ſome of her principal followers were ſentenced to baniſhment. She, with her huſband and family, ſhortly after removed to Aquidnick, (Rhode-Iſland) where, in 1642, Mr. Hutchinſon died. She being diſſatisfied with the people or place, removed to the Dutch country, beyond New-Haven, and the next year, ſhe and all her family, being ſixteen ſouls, were killed by the Indians, except one daughter, who was carried into captivity.

The year 1637, was diſtinguiſhed by the Pequot wars, in which were ſlain five or ſix hundred Indians, and the tribe almoſt wholly deſtroyed. This ſtruck ſuch terror into the Indians, that for forty years ſucceeding, they never openly commenced hoſtilities with the Engliſh.

The year 1638, was rendered memorable by a very great earthquake throughout New-England.

In 1640, the importation of ſettlers ceaſed. The motives for emigrating to New-England were removed by a change in the affairs of England. They who then profeſſed to give the beſt accounts ſay, that in 298 ſhips, which were the whole number from the beginning of the colony, there arrived 21,200 paſſengers, men, women, and children, perhaps about 4000 families. Since then more perſons have removed from New England to other parts of the world, than have arrived from thence hither. The preſent inhabitants therefore of New-England, are juſtly to be eſtimated a natural increaſe, by the bleſſing of Heaven, from the firſt 21,000 that arrived in the year 1640. It was judged that they had, at this time, 12,000 neat cattle, and 3000 ſheep. The charge of tranſporting the families and their ſubſtance, was computed at 192,000*l.* ſterling.

In 1641, many diſcouragements were given to the ſettlers by their former benefactors, who withheld their aſſiſtance from them, and endeavoured, though without ſucceſs, to perſuade them to quit their new eſtabliſhments. The following year, the Indians confederated under Miantinomo, a leader of the Narraganſett Indians, for the extirpation of the Engliſh. The confederacy was fortunately diſcovered in its infancy and produced no miſchief.

This year (1643) great diſturbance was made in the colony by a ſect which aroſe from the aſhes of Antinomianiſm. The members of it, by their imprudence, expoſed themſelves to the intolerant ſpirit of the day, and Gorton, the leader of the party, was ſentenced to be confined to Charleſton, there to be kept at work, and to wear ſuch bolts and irons as might hinder his eſcape, and was threatened with ſeverer puniſhment in caſe of a repetition of his crime. The reſt were confined to different towns, one in a town, upon the ſame conditions with Gorton. Theſe ſentences were cruel and unjuſtifiable; yet much of the apparent ſeverity is removed, when the character and conduct of Gorton is taken into view.

All

All who have published any thing concerning him, except Mr. Calender, have represented him as an infamous character.

About this time, the French of Acadie, or Nova-Scotia, who had differed among themselves repeatedly, and engaged the English occasionally with them, awakened the fears of the colony. But these were soon happily composed. The Indians were this year (1644) and the following, at war among themselves.

In 1646, the colony was disturbed by some of its principal inhabitants, who had conceived a dislike of some of the laws and the government. Several of these disaffected persons were imprisoned, and the rest compelled to give security for their future good behaviour.

An epidemical sickness passed through the country the next year, and swept away many of the English, French, and Dutch.

In 1648, we have the first instance of the credulity and infatuation respecting witchcraft, which, for some time, prevailed in this colony.

Margaret Jones, of Carleston, was accused of having so malignant a quality, as to cause vomitting, deafness, and violent pains by her touch. She was accordingly tried, condemned, and executed. Happy would it have been, if this had been the only instance of this infatuation. But why shall we wonder at the magistrates of New-England, when we find the celebrated Lord Chief Justice Hale, and others of high rank, in Old-England, shortly after, chargeable with as great delusion. The truth is, it was the spirit of the times; and the odium of the witchcraft and other infatuations, ought never to have been mentioned as peculiar to New-England, or ascribed to their singular bigotry and superstition, as has been injuriously done by many European historians. The same spirit prevailed at this time in England, and was very probably brought from thence, as were most of the laws and customs of the first settlers in America. The same infatuation sprang up in Pennsylvania soon after its settlement.*

The

* *The following extracts from the records of Pennsylvania, shew that the method of proceeding with supposed witches, was equally ridiculous in the infancy of that colony as in New-England.*

" *7th 12th, Mo.* 1683.

" Council Book A. Page 43. } *Margaret Mattson and Yethro Hendrickson examined, and about to be proved Witches, whereupon this Board ordered that Neels Mattson should enter into a Recognizance of fifty pounds for his Wife's appearance before this board the 27th instant.*

" *Hendrick Jackson doth the same for his Wife.*

" *27th of the 12th Month.*

Page 44. " *Margarit Mattson's Indictment was read, and she pleads not guilty, and will be tried by the Country.*

Page 45. " *The Jury went forth and upon their Return brought her in guilty of having the Common fame of a Witch, but not guilty in manner and form as she stands indicted.*

Page 46. " *Neels Mattson and Antho Neelson enters into a Recognizance of fifty pounds a piece for the good behaviour of Margaret Mattson for six months.*

" *Jacob Hendrickson enters into a Recognizance of fifty pounds for the good behaviour of Yetro Hendrickson for six Months.*"

The

The ſcrupulouſneſs of the people appears to have ariſen to its height in 1649, and was indeed ridiculous. The cuſtom of wearing long hair, 'after the manner of ruffians and barbarous Indians,' as they termed it, was deemed contrary to the word of God, 'which ſays it is a ſhame for a man to wear long hair.' This expreſſion of the Apoſtle Paul, induced theſe pious people to think this cuſtom criminal in all ages and nations. In a clergyman it was peculiarly offenſive, as they were required in an eſpecial manner to go *patentibus auribus*, with open ears.

The uſe of tobaco was prohibited under a penalty; and the ſmoke of it, in ſome manuſcripts, is compared to the ſmoke of the bottomleſs pit. The ſickneſs frequently produced by ſmoaking tobacco was conſidered as a ſpecies of drunkenneſs, and hence what we now term ſmoaking, was then often called 'drinking tobacco.' At length ſome of the clergy fell into the practice of ſmoaking, and tobacco, by an act of government, 'was ſet at liberty.'

In 1650, a corporation in England, conſtituted for propagating the goſpel among the Indians, began a correſpondence with the commiſſioners of the colonies, who were employed as agents for the corporation as long as the union of the colonies continued. In conſequence of this correſpondence, the coloniſts, who had too long neglected their duty, renewed their attempts to inſtruct the Indians in the knowledge of the Chriſtian Religion. Theſe attempts were attended with little ſucceſs.

While the Engliſh and Dutch were at war in Europe, in 1653, information was given to the governor of Maſſachuſetts, that the Dutch governor had been endeavouring to engage the Indians in a confederacy againſt the Engliſh, to expel or deſtroy them. This created an alarm through the colonies. An examination was made, and preparations for a war enſued, which the pacification at home prevented.

In 1655, a diſtemper, like to that of 1647, went through the plantations.

In 1656 began what has been generally called the perſecution of the Quakers. The firſt who openly profeſſed the principles of this ſect in this colony, were Mary Fiſher and Ann Auſtin, who came from Barbadoes in July of this year. A few weeks after, nine others arrived in the ſhip Speedwell, of London. On the 8th of September, they were brought before the court of Aſſiſtants. It ſeems they had before affirmed, that they were ſent by God to reprove the people for their ſins; they were accordingly queſtioned how they could make it appear that God ſent them? After pauſing, they anſwered, that they had the ſame call that Abraham had to go not of his country. To other queſtions they gave rude and contemptuous anſwers, which is the reaſon aſſigned for committing them to priſon. A great number of their books which they had brought over with

The author of the European ſettlements in America, among many errors as to hiſtorical facts, judiciouſly obſerves, on the ſubject of the New England perſecutions, 'Such is the manner of proceeding of religious parties towards each other, and in this reſpect the New-England people are not worſe than the reſt of mankind; nor was their ſeverity any juſt matter of reflection of that mode of religion which they profeſs. No religion whatſoever, true or falſe, can excuſe its own members, or accuſe thoſe of any other, upon the ſcore of perſecution.'

with intent to ſcatter them about the country, were ſeized and reſerved for the fire. Soon after this, as the governor was going from public worſhip on the Lord's-day to his own houſe, ſeveral gentlemen accompanying him, Mary Prince called to him from a window of the priſon, railing at and reviling him, ſaying, Woe unto thee, thou art an oppreſſor; and denouncing the judgments of God upon him. Not content with this, ſhe wrote a letter to the governor and magiſtrates, filled with opprobrious ſtuff. The governor ſent for her twice from the priſon to his houſe, and took much pains to perſuade her to deſiſt from ſuch extravagancies. Two of the miniſters were preſent, and with much moderation and tenderneſs endeavoured to convince her of her errors, to which ſhe returned the groſſeſt railings, reproaching them as hirelings, deceivers of the people, Baal's prieſts, the ſeed of the ſerpent, of the brood of Iſhmael, and the like.

At this time there was no ſpecial proviſion made in the laws for the puniſhment of the Quakers. But in virtue of a law which had been made againſt heretics in general, the court paſſed ſentence of baniſhment upon them all. Afterwards other ſevere laws were enacted, among which were the following; any Quaker, after the firſt conviction, if a man, was to loſe one ear, and for the ſecond offence, the other—a woman to be each time ſeverely whipped—and the third time, whether man or woman, to have their tongues bored through with a red hot iron.

The perſecution of any religious ſect ever has had, and ever will have a tendency to increaſe their number. Mankind are compaſſionate beings; and from a principle of pity, they will often advocate a cauſe which their judgment diſowns. Thus it was in the caſe of the Quakers; the ſpectator compaſſionated their ſufferings, and then adopted their ſentiments. Their growing numbers induced the legiſlature, in their October ſeſſion, to paſs a law to puniſh with death all Quakers who ſhould return into the juriſdiction after baniſhment. Under this impolitic as well as unjuſt law, four perſons only ſuffered death, and theſe had, in the face of prudence as well as of law, returned after having been baniſhed. That ſome proviſion was neceſſary againſt theſe people, ſo far as they were diſturbers of civil peace and order, every one will allow; but ſuch ſanguinary laws againſt particular doctrines or tenets in religion, are not to be defended. The moſt that can be ſaid for our anceſtors is, that they tried gentler means at firſt, which they found utterly ineffectual, and that they followed the examples of the authorities in moſt other ſtates and in moſt ages of the world, who, with the like abſurdity, have ſuppoſed every perſon could and ought to think as they did, and with the like cruelty have puniſhed ſuch as appeared to differ from them. We may add, that it was with reluctance that theſe unnatural laws were carried into execution.

The laws in England, at this time, were very ſevere againſt the Quakers; and though none were actually put to death by public execution, yet many were confined in priſons where they died in conſequence of the rigor of the law. King Charles the ſecond alſo, in a letter to the colony of Maſſachuſetts, approved of their ſeverity.* The conduct of the Quakers, at ſeveral

* *Extract from the King's Letter, dated the 28th of June,* 1662. "*We*

several times, was such as rendered them proper subjects of a mad-house, or a house of correction; and it is to be lamented that ever any greater severities were used. I will mention one or two instances of their conduct, which clearly manifest a species of madness. 'Thomas Newhouse went into the meeting-house at Boston with a couple of glass bottles, and broke them before the congregation, and threatened, *Thus will the Lord break you in pieces.* Another time M. Brewster came in with her face smeared as black as a coal. Deborah Wilson went through the streets of Salem naked as she was born.' While we condemn the severity with which the Quakers were treated on the one part, we cannot, at the same time, avoid censuring their imprudent, indelicate and infatuated conduct on the other.

These unhappy disturbances continued until the friends of the Quakers in England interposed, and obtained an order from the king, September 9th, 1661, requiring that a stop should be put to all capital or corporal punishment of his subjects called Quakers. This order was prudently complied with, and the disturbances by degrees subsided. From this time the Quakers became in general an orderly, peaceable people, and have submitted to the laws of the governments under which they have resided, except such as relate to the militia and the support of the ministry, and in their scruples as to these they have from time to time wisely been indulged. They are a moral, friendly, and benevolent people, and have much merit as a body for their strict discipline, regular correspondence, for their hospitality, and particularly for their exertions in the abolition of the slavery of the Negroes. In this land of civil and religious freedom, it is hoped that persecution will never again lift its direful head against any religious denomination of people, whose sentiments and conduct are consistent with the peace and happiness of society.

Soon after the restoration of Charles II. in 1660, many complaints were made to his majesty respecting the colony, and, agreeably to a requisition from him, agents were sent over to answer to them. These were favourably received, and returned in a short time with letters from the king, commanding the alteration of some of the laws and customs, and directing the administration of justice to be in his name. The letters not being strictly obeyed, and new complaints coming to the king's ears, four commissioners were dispatched in 1665 to the colony, with absolute authority to hear and determine every cause. This authority met with merited opposition. The colonists adhered to what they imagined to be their just rights and privileges, and though somewhat culpable for their obstinate defence of a few unwarrantable peculiarities, deserve commendation for their general conduct. The commissioners left the colony dissatisfied and enraged.

Their report, however, occasioned no trouble from England, on account

'*We cannot be understood hereby to direct or wish that any indulgence should be granted to those persons commonly called Quakers, whose principles being inconsistent with any kind of government, we have found it necessary by the advice of our parliament here, to make a sharp law against them, and are well contented that you do the like there.*'

count of the jealouſies of government which then prevailed there, and the misfortunes of the plague and fire of London.

The colony now attained a more proſperous condition than it had hitherto known. A ſpirit of induſtry and œconomy pervaded the people, and many of the magiſtrates and merchants became opulent. The civil and eccleſiaſtical parts of the conſtitution had, from the beginning, been harmonioufly united, and continued to be until 1670, when a diviſion, which had been made ſome years before in the church, originated a diſpute, in which the civil authority interpoſed, and claimed a ſuperiority to the eccleſiaſtical. The clergy, notwithſtanding continued to have great influence in government until the diſſolution of the charter.

The war, commonly called Philip's war, occaſioned the next diſturbances in the colony. This war laſted ſeveral years. Many Indians were engaged in it. They meditated the general deſtruction of the Engliſh, and much cruelty was exerciſed by both parties, until a period was put to hoſtilities by the death of Philip, the Indian chief, in 1676.

In the height of the diſtreſs of the war, and while the colony was contending for the poſſeſſion of the ſoil with the natives, complaints were renewed in England, which ſtruck at the powers of government, and an enquiry was ſet on foot, and followed from time to time until 1684, when a judgment was given againſt the charter.

The ſucceeding year, the legiſlature, expecting every day to be ſuperceded, paid little attention to public affairs.

In 1686, May 15th, a commiſſioner arrived, appointing a preſident, and divers gentlemen of the council, to take upon them the adminiſtration of government. This adminiſtration was ſhort, and productive of no grievances.

On the 19th of December, the ſame year, arrived Sir Edmund Andros, with a commiſſion from King James for the government of New-England. Connecticut, however, was not included in this commiſſion. His kind profeſſions encouraged, for a while, the hopes of the people, who, from his character, expected a different treatment from him. He ſoon acted out himſelf, and, together with his council, did many arbitrary acts to the oppreſſion of the people, and the enrichment of himſelf and followers.

The preſs was reſtrained—public thankſgiving, without an order from the crown, was prohibited—fees of all officers were encreaſed, and the people compelled to petition for new patents of their lands, for which they were obliged to pay exorbitant prices.

The colony was greatly diſquieted by theſe and ſimilar tyrannical proceedings; and when news arrived of the declaration of the Prince of Orange, in 1689, the governor and about ſixty others were ſeized and confined, and afterwards ſent home, and the old magiſtrates reinſtated in their offices.

The affairs of the colony were conducted with prudence, and liberty being granted to the people by the crown, to exerciſe for the preſent their former government, they proceeded with regularity according to the old charter, ſtriving in vain to get it confirmed, until, in 1692, they received and adopted a new one. The new charter comprehended all the territory of the old one, together with the colony of New-Plymouth, the

the Province of Main and Nova-Scotia, and all the country between the Province of Main and Nova-Scotia, as far northward as the River St. Lawrence *; alſo Elizabeth Iſlands, and the iſlands of Nantucket and Martha's Vineyard.

By the new charter, the appointment of the governor was in the crown, and every freeholder of forty ſhillings ſterling a year, and every inhabitant of forty pounds ſterling perſonal eſtate, was a voter for repreſentatives.

The French of Quebec inſtigating the Indians, and joining with them to plunder and kill the Engliſh, and the French of Acadie infeſting the coaſts, and taking many veſſels, the general court in the winter of 1689 meditated an attack upon Port-Royal, now called Annapolis-Royal, and upon Quebec. Forces were ſent out and took Port-Royal, and the whole ſea-coaſt from that to Penobſcot, and the New-England ſettlements.

The ſucceſs of this expedition, and the ravage of the French and Indians at the opening of the ſpring, determined the general court to proſecute their deſign upon Quebec. But the ſeaſon was ſo far advanced when the troops arrived at Canada—the French ſo ſuperior in number—the weather ſo tempeſtuous, and the ſickneſs ſo great among the ſoldiers, that this expedition was attended with great loſs.

A truce was concluded with the neighbouring Indians, while the troops were gone out of the colony, but hoſtilities were ſoon renewed.

The French and Indians moleſted the inhabitants of the frontiers daily. Acadie fell again into the hands of the French, and was afterwards retaken by the Engliſh. The inhabitants of this territory experienced the greateſt ſufferings at every change of their maſter.

A new expedition was planned againſt Canada, and aſſiſtance from England ſolicited year after year for the reduction of the French, who were endeavouring by the aid of the ſavages to ruin entirely the Britiſh ſettlements.

In 1692, the ſpirit of infatuation reſpecting witchcraft was again revived in New-England, and raged again with uncommon violence. Several hundreds were accuſed, many were condemned, and ſome executed. Various have been the opinions reſpecting the deluſion which occaſioned this tragedy. Some pious people have believed there was ſomething ſupernatural in it, and that it was not all the effect of fraud and impoſture. Many are willing to ſuppoſe the accuſers to have been under bodily diſorders which affected their imaginations. This is kind and charitable, but ſcarcely probable. It is very poſſible that the whole was a ſcene of fraud and impoſture, began by young girls, who at firſt perhaps thought of nothing more than exciting pity and indulgence, and continued by adult perſons, who were afraid of being accuſed themſelves. The one and the other, rather than confeſs their fraud, ſuffered the lives of ſo many

* *Since the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, Nova-Scotia was arbitrarily taken from Maſſachuſetts, and erected into a ſeparate government. And by the treaty of 1783, the territory between the Highlands, which form a part of the northern boundary of the United States, and the River St. Lawrence, was ceded to Great-Britain.*

many innocents to be taken away through the credulity of judges and juries.

That the odium of this tragic conduct might not reſt upon the New-Englanders alone, it ought here to be obſerved, that the ſame infatuation was at this time current in England. The law by which witches were condemned, was a copy of the ſtatute in England; and the practice of the courts was regulated by precedents there afforded. Some late inſtances prove that England is not entirely cured of that deluſion.

In 1711, ſome ſhips and troops being ſent over, the colony troops joined them, and an attempt was made upon Canada, in which the greater part of them periſhed. This diſaſter was very grievous to the people of New-England, and many perſons, in conſequence of it, abandoned every expectation of conquering Canada.

Frequent excurſions on the frontiers immediately followed; but as ſoon as the peace of Utrecht was known, the Indians of the various tribes requeſted to be at peace with the Engliſh—aſked pardon for their violation of former treaties, and engaged for the future to demean themſelves as good ſubjects of the crown of Great-Britain. Articles of a general treaty were drawn up and ſigned by both parties.

From 1675, when Philip's war began, to the preſent time, 1713, five or ſix thouſand of the youth of the country had periſhed by the enemy, or by diſtempers contracted in the ſervice of their country. The colonies, which uſually doubled their inhabitants in five and twenty years, had not at this time double the number which they had five years before. The proſpect of a long peace, which the general treaty afforded, was interrupted by the machinations of one Ralle, a French Jeſuit, who inſtigated the Indians to make freſh incurſions on the borders of the colony in 1717. After ſeveral ineffectual attempts to perſuade the Indians to deſiſt from their operations, forces were ſent out by government from time to time, who deſtroyed ſeveral parties of the Indians, but there was no ceſſation of hoſtilities until the death of Ralle in 1724.

In 1725, a treaty was made with the Indians, and a long peace ſucceeded it. The length of the peace is in a great meaſure to be attributed to the favourable acts of government, made ſoon after its commencement, reſpecting the Indian trade.

In 1721, the ſmall-pox made great havock in Boſton and the adjacent towns. Of 5889, who took it in Boſton, 844 died. Inoculation was introduced on this occaſion, contrary however to the minds of the inhabitants in general. Dr. C. Mather, one of the principal miniſters of Boſton, had obſerved, in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, a letter from Timonius from Conſtantinople, giving a favourable account of the operation. He recommended it to the phyſicians of Boſton to make the experiment, but all declined except Dr. Boylſton. To ſhew his confidence of ſucceſs, he began with his own children and ſervants. Many pious people were ſtruck with horror at the idea, and were of opinion that if any of his patients ſhould die, he ought to be treated as a murderer.

All orders of men, in a greater or leſs degree, condemned a practice which is now univerſally approved, and to which thouſands owe the preſervation of their lives.

In

In 1745, according to a propoſal and plan of the governor of this colony, Louiſburg was beſieged and taken. The poſſeſſion of this place appeared neceſſary for the ſecurity of the Engliſh fiſhery, and prevented an attack upon Nova-Scotia, which the French had meditated and threatened.

The reduction of Louiſburg by a Britiſh colony, ſurprized Great-Britain and France, and occaſioned both powers to form important plans for the next year. Great-Britain had in view the reduction of Canada, and the extirpation of the French from the northern continent. France, the recovery of Louiſburg, the conqueſt of Nova-Scotia, and the deſtruction of the Engliſh ſea-coaſt from Nova-Scotia to Georgia. Great preparations were accordingly made by both monarchs. A very formidable French fleet ſailed for the American coaſt; a Britiſh ſquadron was long expected to oppoſe them, and to protect the colonies; but expected in vain. The colonies were in immediate and imminent danger. Fortunately for them, the French fleet was rendered unfit to accompliſh their deſign, by a violent ſtorm, which damaged moſt of the ſhips ſo much, that they were obliged to return to France, or retire to the Weſt-Indies to refit.

Pious men ſaw the immediate hand of divine providence in the protection, or rather reſcue of the Britiſh colonies this year, as they had done in the almoſt miraculous ſucceſs of the Cape Breton expedition, the year before.

By the time the fears of the colonies, which had been excited by the French fleet, were removed, the ſeaſon was too far advanced to proſecute the Canada expedition. The inactive proſecution of the war in Europe on both ſides, indicated peace to be near, which the next year was affected.

Here Governor Hutchinſon ends his hiſtory of Maſſachuſetts. It belongs to the profeſſed hiſtorian to relate the important events which have happened ſince. Several of them, however, may be found in the foregoing hiſtory of the United States. It ought in juſtice here to be obſerved, that in point of military, political, and literary importance, Maſſachuſetts is inferior to none, and ſuperior, to moſt, of the ſtates in the union.

PROVINCE of MAIN.

Including the lands which lie eaſt, as far as Nova-Scotia, (Belonging to Maſſachuſetts.)

SITUATION and EXTENT.

	miles.		
Length	300	Between	43° and 46° North Latitude.
Breadth	104		4° and 8° Eaſt Longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north-weſtwardly by the high lands, which ſeparate the rivers which fall into the St. Lawrence, from thoſe which fall into the Atlantic ocean; eaſtwardly by the river St.

Croix, and a line drawn due north from its ſource to the ſaid high lands, which divides this territory from Nova-Scotia; ſouth eaſtwardly by the Atlantic ocean; and weſtwardly by New-Hampſhire.

The Old Province of Main (included in the limits preſcribed above) is bounded on the ſouth weſt and weſt by New-Hampſhire; ſouth-eaſt by the Atlantic ocean, and north and north-eaſt by the land, called in ſome maps Saghadahok. It was ſuppoſed, at the time of its being made a province, to have been 120 miles ſquare; but by a ſettlement of the line in 1737, on the part or ſide adjoining New-Hampſhire, the form of the land was reduced from a ſquare to that of a diamond. The Province of Main contains, according to Douglaſs, about 9,600 ſquare miles.

Civil diviſion.] The whole Province of Main, and the territory to the eaſt of it as far as the weſtern boundary of Nova-Scotia, were formerly in one county, by the name of Yorkſhire. In 1761, this extenſive county was divided into three counties. The eaſternmoſt, called LINCOLN, contains all lands eaſt of Sagadahok, and ſome part of Main, viz. Georgetown, on the ſea-coaſt, and all the lands between the rivers Kennebek and Ameraſcoggin.

This county is ſaid to be 150 miles ſquare. It has been in agitation for ſeveral years to divide it into three, but for various reaſons the diviſion has hitherto been delayed. For the accommodation of the inhabitants, it is at preſent divided into three diſtricts, in each of which is a judge, a regiſter of probates, and a regiſter of deeds. A great part of this county is yet in a ſtate of nature; it is, however, rapidly ſettling. The frontier inhabitants on each ſide of the Canada line, are but a few miles apart.

Next to Lincoln is CUMBERLAND county, of which Portland is the county town, and capital of the whole territory. This county contains nearly half the Old Province of Main. The reſt of the Province of Main is included in YORK county. Theſe three counties are ſubdivided into ninety-four townſhips, of which Lincoln contains fifty-three, Cumberland twenty, and York twenty-one. Theſe counties, in 1778, had ſix regiments of militia.

In 1778, a ſtate tax of £.354, 718 16 11, was aſſeſſed on the polls and eſtates, within the Commonwealth of Maſſachuſetts, by their general court. The following apportionment of that tax to the three counties abovementioned, will ſerve to ſhew the proportion which they bear to the whole ſtate.

York county	£.11,102 16 8	Which is nearly one thirteenth part of the whole ſum.
Cumberland, do.	6,428 6 2	
Lincoln, do.	1,782 7 8	
Total	£.19,313 10 6	

Rivers.] St. Croix is a ſhort and inconſiderable river, forming the eaſtern boundary of the United States *. It falls into Paſſamaquoday bay, Penobſcot

* *Governor Pownal ſuppoſes that Paſſamaquody river, which is fifteen or twenty miles eaſt of St. Croix, is the real eaſtern boundary of New England.* For

Penobſcot river riſes in ſome ponds in the heart of the country, and paſſing through ſeveral ſmall lakes, it tumbles for near two miles over falls, which effectually prevent any further marine navigation. To theſe falls, which are about fifty * miles from the ſea, this river is navigable for veſſels of an hundred tons. It empties into Penobſcot bay.

Kennebek river riſes from a little pond in the height of land, in north latitude 45° 20′ and about 5° 10′ eaſt longitude. Its general courſe is from north to ſouth. It is navigable for veſſels of an hundred tons, to Hallowell, fifty miles from Small-point, at the mouth of the river.

Sagadahok or Ameraſcoggin river, which, properly ſpeaking, is but the main weſtern branch of the Kennebek, riſes in latitude 44° 50′ north-eaſtward of the *White Hills*, in lake Umbagoog. Peabody river, and another branch, fall into this main ſtream, from the eaſt ſide of the White Hills. Its courſe is ſouth about twenty-ſix miles, then eaſt north-eaſt ſixty, when it meets a ſecond main ſtream from the north-eaſt, thirty-four miles from its ſource. Hence the river runs ſouth forty miles. In this courſe it paſſes within two miles of the ſea-coaſt, then turns north, and running over Pejepſkaeg falls into Merry Meeting bay: from thence, with the waters of Kenebek, which likewiſe fall into this bay, with ſeveral other ſmall ſtreams, it paſſes off to the ſea, ſixteen miles, by the name of *Kennebek*, or Sagadahok river.

The Dutch formerly had a ſettlement at the place that is now called Newcaſtle, which was under the juriſdiction of the then governor of New-York, then called Manhadoes. The town was built on a beautiful neck of land, where rows of old cellars, near each other, are now to be ſeen.

Saco river has two ſources, one in Oſſipee pond, near Oſſipee mountain; the other, which is its principal branch, falls from the ſouth ſide of the White Hills. The former is called Oſſipee, and the latter Pigwaket river. (Oſſipee pond and Oſſipee mountain are in New-Hampſhire, as are the White Hills.) Theſe ſoon unite, and the river, keeping in a general ſouth-eaſtern courſe for ſixty or ſeventy miles, paſſes between Pepperillborough and Biddeford townſhips, into Saco bay, near Winter Harbour. Marine navigation is ſtopped by Saco falls, ſeven or eight miles from the ſea. At theſe falls, which are about twenty feet in height, are the greateſt board-works in this part of the country. The river here is broken by ſmall iſlands in ſuch a manner as to afford a number of fine ſaw-mill ſeats. Before the war, 4,000,000 feet of pine-boards were annually ſawed by the mills at this place. Logs are floated down the river from ſixty or ſeventy miles above the mills; and veſſels can come up quite to the mills to take in their lading.

Beſides theſe are a number of ſmaller rivers. Stevens's, a ſalt water river; Preſumſcut and Royal rivers run into Caſco Bay. Kennebunk

For, ſaid he, 'The French, according to their mode of taking poſſeſſion, always fixed a croſs in every river they came to. Almoſt every river on the coaſt of Sagadahok has, in its turn, been deemed by them La Riviere de St. Croix. Under equivocation of this general appellative, they have amuſed our negotiators on every occaſion.

* *Governor Pownal ſays, thirty-five.*

and Mouſom rivers, extend ſome diſtance into the country, and empty into Wells bay. Webhannet river is the principal entrance by water into the town of Wells, and has a barred harbour. York river runs up ſeven or eight miles, and has a tolerable harbour for veſſels under 200 tons. Its rocks render it ſomewhat hazardous for ſtrangers. Spurwing river runs through Scarborough to the weſtward of Cape Elizabeth, and is navigable a few miles for veſſels of an hundred tons. Sheepſcut is navigable twenty or thirty miles, and empties into the ocean at the ſame mouth with Kennebek. On this river is an excellent port called Wiſcaſſet, in the townſhip of Pownalborough. At the head of navigation on this river is Newcaſtle, which extends from Sheepſcut at Damariſcotta river. Pemaquid and Damariſcotta are ſmall rivers; the former has a beautiful harbour, but is not navigable above its mouth.

Bays and Capes.] The ſea coaſt is indented with innumerable bays. Thoſe worth noticing are Penobſcot bay, at the mouth of Penobſcot river, which is long and capacious. Its eaſt ſide is lined with a cluſter of ſmall iſlands. On a fine peninſula in this bay, the Britiſh, in the late war, built a fort and made a ſettlement, which is now a townſhip of Maſſachuſetts, and a commodious ſituation for the lumber trade. It has been called hitherto by its old Indian name Majabagaduſe, or for the ſake of brevity, Bagaduſe. At the diſtance of about four leagues weſtwardly, is Broad Bay, on the weſtern ſhore of which, Pemaquid point or cape projects into the ſea. Caſco Bay is between Cape Elizabeth, and Cape Small Point. It is twenty five miles wide, and about fourteen miles length. It is a moſt beautiful bay, interſperſed with ſmall iſlands, and forms the entrance into Sagadahok. It has a ſufficient depth of water for veſſels of any burden. Wells bay lies between Cape Neddik and Cape Porpoiſe.

Ponds are lakes.) Sabago pond is about twenty miles north-weſt of Falmouth. Cobeſeiconti ponds are between Amaraſcoggin and Kennebek rivers. Beſides theſe there are Mouſom and Lovel's ponds, and ſeveral others.

Mountains] Agamenticus, a noted land-mark for ſailors, is about eight miles from the ſea, in latitude 43° 16′, and lies in the townſhip of York, a few miles weſtward of Wells.

Chief towns.] Portland is a peninſula, that was formerly part of Falmouth. In July 1786, the compact part of the town and the port were incorporated by the name of Portland. It has an excellent, ſafe and capacious harbour, but incapable of defence, except by a navy, and carries on a foreign trade, and the fiſhery, and builds ſome ſhips. The town is growing, and capable of great improvements. The old town of Falmouth, which included Portland, was divided into three pariſhes, which contained more than 700 families, in flouriſhing circumſtances, when the Britiſh troops burnt it in 1775. It is now chiefly rebuilt.

Kittery is a pretty little town on the eaſt ſide of the mouth of Piſcataqua river, and is famous for ſhip-building. One of its preſent inhabitants * is one of the firſt genuiſes in that line in America. York, Wells,

* *Mr. Peck.*

Berwick,

Berwick, Arundel, Biddeford and Scarborough, are all conſiderable towns.

Climate.] The heat in ſummer is intenſe, and the cold in winter equally extreme. All freſh water lakes, ponds and rivers are uſually paſſable on ice, from Chriſtmas, until the middle of March. The longeſt day is fifteen hours and ſixteen minutes, and the ſhorteſt eight hours and forty-four minutes. The climate is very healthful. Many of the inhabitants live ninety years.

Face of the country, Soil, and Produce.] The face of the country, in regard to evenneſs or roughneſs, is ſimilar to the reſt of the New-England ſtates. About Caſco-Bay, it is level and ſandy, and the ſoil thin and poor. Throughout this country, there is a greater proportion of dead ſwamps than in any other part of New-England. The tract lying between Paſſamaquady and Penobſcot rivers, is white pine land, of a ſtrong moiſt ſoil, with ſome mixture of oaks, white aſh, birch, and other trees, and the interior parts are interſperſed with beech ridges. The ſea-coaſt is generally barren. In many towns the land is good for grazing. Wells and Scarborough have large tracts of ſalt marſh. The inland parts of Main are fertile, but newly and thinly ſettled. The low ſwamps are uſeleſs.

The grain raiſed here is principally Indian corn—little or no wheat—ſome rye, barley, oats, and peas. The inhabitants raiſe excellent potatoes, in large quantities, which are frequently uſed inſtead of bread. Their butter has the preference to any in New-England, owing to the goodneſs of the graſs, which is very ſweet and juicy. Apples, pears, plums, peachies, and cherries grow here very well. Plenty of cyder, and ſome perry is made in the ſouthern and weſtern parts of Main. The perry is made from choak pears, and is an agreeable liquor, having ſomething of the harſhneſs of claret wine, joined with the ſweetneſs of metheglin.

Timber.] On the high lands are oak in ſome places, but not plenty, maple, beech, and white birch. The white birch in this part of the country, is unlike that which grows in other parts. It is a large ſightly tree, fit for many uſes. Its bark, which is compoſed of a great number of thickneſſes, is, when ſeparated, ſmoother and ſofter than any paper. The clay-lands produce fir. The timber of this tree is unfit for uſe, but it yields the balſam which is ſo much admired. This balſam is contained in ſmall protuberances, like bliſters, under the ſmooth bark of the tree. The fir-tree is an ever-green, reſembling the ſpruce, but very tapering, and not very large or tall.

Trade, Manufactures, &c.] From the firſt ſettlement of Main until the year 1774 or 1775, the inhabitants generally followed the lumber trade to the neglect of agriculture. This afforded an immediate profit. Large quantities of corn and other grain were annually imported from Boſton and other places, without which it was ſuppoſed the inhabitants could not have ſubſiſted. But the late war, by rendering theſe reſources precarious, put the inhabitants upon their true intereſt, i. e. the cultivation of their lands, which, at a little diſtance from the ſea, are well adapted for raiſing grain. The inhabitants now raiſe a ſufficient quantity for their own conſumption; though too many are ſtill more fond of the axe than of the plough.

plough. Their wool and flax are very good—hemp has not been sufficiently tried. Almost every family manufacture wool and flax into cloth, and make husbandry utensils of every kind for their own use.

Mines and Minerals.] Iron and Bog-ore are found in many places, in great plenty, and works are erected to manufacture it into iron. There is a stone in Lebanon, which yields copperas and sulphur.

Exports.] This country abounds with lumber of the various kinds, such as masts, which of late, however, have become scarce, white-pine boards, ship-timber, and every species of split lumber, manufactured from pine and oak; these are exported from Quamphegon, in Berwick, Saco-falls, in Biddeford, and Pepperillborough, Presumscut-falls, in Falmouth, and Amerascoggin-falls, in Brunswick. The rivers abound with salmon in the spring season. On the sea-coast fish of various kinds are caught in plenty. Of these the cod-fish are the principal. Dried fish furnishes a capital article of export.

Animals.] In this country are deer, moose, beaver, otters, sables, brown squirrels, white-rabbits, bears, which have frequently destroyed corn-fields, wolves, which are destructive to sheep, mountain-cats, porcupines, or hedge-hogs—patridges, but no quails, wild-geese and ducks, and other water-fowls, abound on the sea-coast in their seasons. No venomous serpents are found east of Kennebek-river.

Character and Religion.] The inhabitants are a hardy robust set of people. The males are early taught the use of the musquet, and from their frequent use of it in fowling, are expert marks-men. The people in general are humane and benevolent. The common people ought, by law, to have the advantage of a school education, but there is here, as in other parts of New-England, too visible a neglect.

In March, 1788, the general-court ordered that a tract of land, six miles square, should be laid out between Kennebek and Penobscot rivers, to the northward of Waldo patent, to be appropriated for the foundation of a college.

As to religion, the people are moderate Calvinists. Notwithstanding Episcopacy was established by their former charter, the churches are principally on the congregational plan; but are candid, catholic, and tolerant towards those of other persuasions.

In 1785, they had seventy-two religious assemblies, to supply which were thirty-four ministers.

History.] The first attempt to settle this country was made in 1607, on the west side of Sagadahok, near the sea. No permanent settlement, however, was at this time effected. It does not appear that any further attempts were made until between the years 1620 and 1630.

In 1636, courts were held at Saco and other places, of which some records are extant. From these records it appears, that the courts acted both in a legislative and a judicial capacity. Very few of their orders and laws are to be found. They proceeded in a summary method, attending more to substance than form, making the laws of England their general rule.

In

In 1635, Sir Ferdinando Gorges obtained a grant from the council of Plymouth, of the tract of country between the rivers Piscataqua and Sagadahok, which is the mouth of Kennebek; and up Kennebek, so far as to form a square of 120 miles. It is supposed that Sir Ferdinand first instituted government in this province.

In 1639, Gorges obtained from the crown a charter of the soil and jurisdiction, containing as ample powers perhaps as the King of England ever granted to any subject.

In the same year he appointed a government and council, and they administered justice to the settlers until about the year 1647, when, hearing of the death of Gorges, they supposed their authority ceased, and the people on the spot universally combined and agreed to be under civil government, and to elect their officers annually.

Government was administered in this form until 1652, when the inhabitants submitted to the Massachusetts, who, by a new construction of their charter, which was given to Rosswell and others, in 1628, claimed the soil and jurisdiction of the Province of Main, as far as the middle of Casco-Bay. Main then first took the name of Yorkshire; and county-courts were held in the manner they were in Massachusetts, and the towns had liberty to send their deputies to the general-court at Boston.

In 1664, Charles II. granted to his brother the Duke of York, all that part of New-England which lies between St. Croix and Pemaquid rivers, on the sea-coast; and up Pemaquid river, and from the head thereof to Kennebek river, and thence the shortest course north to St. Lawrence river. This was called the Duke of York's property, and annexed to the government of New-York. The Duke of York, on the death of his brother Charles II. became James II. and upon James's abdication, these lands reverted to the crown.

At present, the territory of the Sagadahok is supposed to contain all lands lying between the river St. Croix east, and Kennebek west, and from the Atlantic to the highlands, in the northern boundary of the United States.

Upon the restoration of Charles II. the heirs of Georges complained to the crown of the Massachusetts usurpation; and in 1665, the King's commissioners, who visited New-England, came to the province of Main, and appointed magistrates and other officers, independent of Massachusetts-Bay. The magistrates, thus appointed, administered government according to such instructions as the King's commissioners had given them, until about the year 1668, when the Massachusetts general-court sent down commissioners and interrupted such as acted by the authority derived from the King's commissioners. At this time public affairs were in confusion; some declaring for Gorges and the magistrates appointed by the King's commissioners, and others for Massachusetts. The latter, however, prevailed, and courts of pleas and criminal jurisdiction were held as in other parts of the Massachusett's-Bay.

About the year 1674, the heirs of Gorges complained again to the King and council of the usurpation of Massachusetts-Bay, and they were called upon to answer for their conduct. The result was, they ceased for a time to exercise their jurisdiction, and Gorges, grandson of Ferdinando, sent over instructions. But in 1677, the Massachusetts, by their agent,

agent, John Uſher, Eſq; afterwards governor of New-Hampſhire, purchaſed the right and intereſt of the patent for 1,200l. ſterling The Maſſachuſetts now ſuppoſed they had both the juriſdiction and the ſoil, and accordingly governed in the manner the charter of Main had directed, until 1684, when the Maſſachuſetts charter was vacated.

In 1691, by charter from William and Mary, the Province of Main and the large territory eaſtward, extending to Nova-Scotia, was incorporated with the Maſſachuſetts-Bay; ſince which it has been governed, and courts held as in other parts of the Maſſachuſetts.

This country, from its firſt ſettlement, has been greatly harraſſed by the Indians.

In 1675, all the ſettlements were in a manner broken up and deſtroyed.

From about 1692 until about 1702, was one continued ſcene of killing, burning, and deſtroying. The inhabitants ſuffered much for ſeveral years preceding and following the year 1724. And ſo late as 1744 and 1748, perſons were killed and captivated by the Indians in many of the towns next the ſea.

Since this period, the inhabitants have lived in peace, and have increaſed to upwards of 50,000 ſouls. This number is daily and rapidly increaſing. To facilitate intercourſe between the inhabitants, the legiſlature have lately adopted meaſures for opening roads in different parts of the country. Such is their growing importance, and their ardent deſire for independence, that their political ſeparation from Maſſachuſetts may be ſuppoſed not far diſtant.

RHODE-ISLAND.

SITUATION and EXTENT.

miles.
Length 68
Breadth 40
} Between { 3 and 4° Eaſt Longitude.
41 and 42° North Latitude.

Boundaries. BOUNDED north and eaſt by the Commonwealth of Maſſachuſetts; ſouth by the Atlantic; weſt by Connecticut. Theſe limits comprehend what has been called Rhode-Iſland and Providence Plantations.

Civil

Civil Diviſions and Population.] This ſtate is divided into five counties, which are ſubdived into twenty-nine townſhips, as follows:

COUNTIES.	TOWNSHIPS.	N° of inhabitants.
Newport,	Newport,	5530
	Portſmouth,	1350
	Foſter,	1763
	Jameſton,	345
	Middleton,	674
	Tiverton,	1959
	Little Compton	1341
Waſhington,	Weſterly,	1720
	North Kingſton	2328
	South Kingſton	2675
	Charleſton,	1523
	Exeter,	2058
	Richmond,	1094
	Hopkinton,	1735
Kent,	East Greenwich	1609
	Weſt Greenw.	1698
	Coventry,	2107
Providence,	Providence,	4310
	Warwick,	2112
	Smithfield,	2217
	Scituate,	1628
	Glouceſter,	2791
	Cumberland,	1548
	Cranſton,	1589
	Johnſton,	996
	North Provid.	698
Briſtol,	Briſtol,	1032
	Warren,	905
	Barrington,	534
Total five.	Twenty-nine.	51,896

A cenſus of the inhabitants was made in 1774, when they amounted to 59,103. The diminution of inhabitants in this ſtate, in nine years, 7623. In Newport, 3679, almoſt half the whole number. Some towns have gained 389.

The number of inhabitants in Rhode-Iſland and Providence Plantations was in the year

1730 { 15,302 Whites. / 2,633 Blacks. | 1748 { 29,755 Whites. / 4,373 Blacks. | 1761 { 35,939 Whites. / 4,697 Blacks.

1774 { 54,435 Whites. / 5,243 Blacks. | 1783 { 48,538 Whites. / 3,361 Blacks.

The civil diſſentions in which this eſtate has for ſome time paſt been involved, have occaſioned many emigrations. Until theſe diſſentions are compoſed, the number will no doubt continue to decreaſe.

The inhabitants are chiefly of Engliſh extraction. The original ſettlers migrated from Maſſachuſetts.

Bays.

Bays, Harbours, and Iſlands.] Narraganſett Bay makes up from ſouth to north, between the main land on the eaſt and weſt. It embоſoms many fertile iſlands, the principal of which are Rhode-Iſland, Canonnicut, Prudence, Patience, Hope, Dyer's and Hog Iſlands.

The harbours are Newport, Providence, Wickford, Patuxet, Warren, and Briſtol.

Rhode-Iſland is thirteen miles long from north to ſouth, and four miles wide, and is divided into three townſhips, Newport, Portſmouth, and Middleton. It it a noted reſort for invalids from ſouthern climates.

The iſland is exceedingly pleaſant and healthful; and is celebrated for its fine women. Travellers, with propriety, call it the *Eden* of America.

It ſuffered much by the late war. Some of its moſt ornamental country ſeats were deſtroyed, and their fine groves, orchards, and fruit trees, wantonly cut down. The ſoil is of a ſuperior quality. Before the war 30,000 ſheep commonly fed upon this iſland; and one year there were 37,000. Two years ago there were not 3000 ſheep upon the iſland. They have probably increaſed ſince.

Canonnicut lies weſt of Rhode-Iſland, and is ſix miles in length, and about one mile in breadth. It was purchaſed of the Indians in 1657, and incorporated by act of aſſembly by the name of Jameſton, in 1678.

Black-Iſland, called by the Indians Maniſſes, is about forty-three miles ſouth-weſt from New-port, and is the ſouthernmoſt land belonging to the ſtate. It was erected into a townſhip, by the name of New-Shoreham, in 1672.

Prudence-Iſland is nearly or quite as large as Canonnicut, and lies north of it.

Rivers.] Providence and Taunton rivers both fall into Narraganſett Bay, the former on the weſt, the latter on the eaſt ſide of Rhode-Iſland. Providence river riſes in Maſſachuſetts, and is navigable as far as Providence, thirty miles from the ſea. One branch of Taunton river proceeds from Winiſimoket ponds; the other riſes within about a mile of Charles river. In its courſe, ſoutherly, it paſſes by the town of Taunton, from which it takes its name. It is navagable for ſmall veſſels to Taunton. Common tides riſe about four feet.

Climate.] Rhode-Iſland is as healthful a country as any part of North America. The winters, in the maritime parts of the ſtate, are milder than in the inland country; the air being ſoftened by a ſea vapour, which alſo enriches the ſoil. The ſummers are delightful, eſpecially on Rhode-Iſland, where the extreme heats, which prevail in other parts of America, are allayed by cool and refreſhing breezes from the ſea.

The diſorders moſt prevalent, are conſumptions and the dyſentery. Theſe are not ſo much owing to the climate, as to intemperance and imprudence.

Soil and Productions.] This ſtate, generally ſpeaking, is a country for paſture and not for grain. It however produces corn, rye, barley, oats, and flax, and culinary plants and roots in great variety and abundance. Its natural growth is the ſame as in the other New-England ſtates. The weſtern and north-weſtern parts of the ſtate are but thinly inhabited, and are barren and rocky. In the Narraganſett country the land is fine for grazing.

The

The people are generally farmers, and raiſe great numbers of the fineſt and largeſt neat cattle in America; ſome of them weighing from 16 to 1800 weight. They keep large dairies, and make butter and cheeſe of the beſt quality, and in large quantities, for exportation. Narraganſett is famed for an excellent breed of pacing horſes. They are ſtrong, and remarkable for their ſpeed, and for their excecellency in enduring the fatigues of a long journey.

Trade] Before the war, the merchants in Rhode-Iſland imported from Great-Britain, dry goods--from Holland, money—from Africa, ſlaves—from the Weſt-Indies, ſugars, coffee, and molaſſes—and from the neighbouring colonies, lumber and proviſions. With the money which they obtained in Holland, they paid their merchants in England; their ſugars they carried to Holland; the ſlaves from Africa, they carried to the Weſt-Indies, together with the lumber and proviſions procured from their neighbours; the rum diſtilled from molaſſes, was carried to Africa, to purchaſe negroes; with their dry goods from England, they trafficked with the neighbouring colonies. By this kind of circuitous commerce, they ſubſiſted and grew rich. But the war, and ſome other events, have had a great, and in moſt reſpects, an injurious effect upon the trade of this ſtate. The ſlave trade, which was a ſource of wealth to many of the people in Newport, and in other parts of the ſtate, has happily been aboliſhed. The legiſlature have paſſed a law prohibiting ſhips from going to Africa for ſlaves, and ſelling them in the Weſt-India iſlands; and the oath of one ſeaman, belonging to the ſhip, is ſufficient evidence of the fact. This law is more favourable to the cauſe of humanity, than to the temporal intereſts of the merchants who had been engaged in this inhuman trade. The prohibition of the ſlave trade, and the iniquitous and deſtructive influence of paper money, combined with the devaſtations of a cruel war, have occaſioned a ſtagnation of trade in Newport, which is truly melancholy and diſtreſſing. The ſalutary influence of a wiſe and efficient government, it is hoped, will revive the deſponding hopes of the people in this beautiful city, and place them in their former affluent and reſpectable ſituation.

The preſent exports from the ſtate are flax-ſeed, lumber, horſes, cattle, fiſh, poultry, onions, cheeſe, and barley. The Imports, Conſiſting of European and Weſt-India goods, and logwood from the Bay of Honduras, exceed the exports. About 600 veſſels enter and clear annually at the different ports in this ſtate.

Light-Houſe.] For the ſafety and inconvenience of ſailing into the harbour of Newport, a *light-houſe* was erected in 1749, in Beavertail, at the ſouth end of Canonnicut iſland.

Dr. Douglaſs, in his SUMMARY, &c. publiſhed in 1753, has given a particular deſcription of it. As I know not that any material alteration has taken place reſpecting it, ſince that time, I ſhall inſert it from him.

'The diameter at the baſe is 24 feet, and at the top 13 feet. The height from the ground to the top of the cornice is 58 feet, round which is a gallery, and within that ſtands the lanthorn, which is about 11 feet high, and 8 feet diameter.

'The ground the light-houſe ſtands on is about 12 feet above the ſurface of the ſea at high water.

The

The following are the bearings (by the compaſs) of ſeveral remarkable places from the light-houſe, viz.

Point Judith	S. W.	3 Degrees S.
Block-Iſland N. W. Point,	S. W.	8 —— S.
Ditto S. E. Point,	S. W. by S.	5 —— S.
Whale Rock	W.	9 —— S.
Brenton's Reef	E. S. E.	4 —— E.
Seal Rock	E. S. E.	10 —— E.
S. Point of Rhode-Iſland	E.	7 —— S.
Watch Houſe on Caſtle-Hill	E. N. E.	4 —— E.
Brenton's Point	E. N. E.	4 —— N.
Fort on Goat-Iſland	E. N. E	5 —— N.
S. Eaſternmoſt of the Dumplins	N. E. by E.	
Kettle Bottom Rock	N. E.	4 —— E.
Anchoring place between the town of Newport and coaſter's harbour	N. E. by E.	

There is a ſmall ſunken rock lies off due S. and at the diſtance of about 200 yards from the light-houſe.'

Mountains.] In the town of Briſtol is Mount Hope, or as ſome, Mont Haup, which is remarkable only on account of its having been the ſeat of king Philip, and the place where he was killed. It is now the ſeat of governor Bradford.

Indians.] There are about 500 Indians in this ſtate. The greater part of them reſide at Charleſton. They are peaceable and well-diſpoſed towards government, and ſpeak the Engliſh language.

Chief Towns.] Newport and Providence are the two principal towns in the ſtate. Newport lies in lat. 41° 35′. This town was firſt ſettled by Mr. William Coddington, afterwards governor, and the father of Rhode-Iſland, with ſeventeen others, in 1639. Its harbour, which is one of the fineſt in the world, ſpreads weſtward beſord the town. The entrance is eaſy and ſafe, and a large fleet may anchor in it and ride in perfect ſecurity. The town lies north and ſouth upon a gradual aſcent as you proceed eaſtward from the water, and exhibits a beautiful view from the harbour, and from the neighbouring hills which lie eaſtward upon the Main. Weſt of the town is Goat-Iſland, on which is a fort. Between this iſland and the town is the harbour. Front or Water-ſtreet is a mile in length, and level.

Newport contains about 1000 houſes, built chiefly of wood, and 5530 inhabitants. It has nine houſes for public worſhip; three for the baptiſts, two for congregationaliſts, one for epiſcopalians, one for Quakers, one for Moravians, and a ſynagogue for the Jews. The other public buildings are a ſtate-houſe, and an edifice for the public library. The ſituation, form, and architecture of the ſtate-houſe, give it the preference to moſt public buildings in America. It ſtands ſufficiently elevated, and a long wharf, and paved parade lead up to it from the harbour.

The building for the library conſiſts of one large room, thirty-ſix feet long, twenty-ſix feet broad, and nineteen feet high, where the books are kept, with two ſmall offices adjoining. The principal or weſt front is a pediment

pediment and portico of four columns, of the Dorick order; the whole *entablature* of which, runs quite round the building. The two offices are placed as wings, one on each side the portico, and connected with the body of the building so as to form two half-pediments proceeding from the lower part of the *entablature*. The east-front consists of a plain Dorick pediment, supported by a rustic arcade of three arches, in the recesses of which, are placed three Venetian windows, after the Dorick order. The outside of the whole building is rustic work, and stands on a base five feet from the ground, and the entrance is by a flight of steps the whole width of the portico.

In the year 1747, Abraham Redwood, Esq; gave 1294 volumes, valued at £.500 sterling, as the foundation of a library in Newport. Several other valuable donations were afterwards given. These books were deposited in the above-described edifice, which was erected for the purpose of receiving them. A number of gentlemen were incorporated into a body politic by the name of the 'Company of the Redwood Library,' with power to choose annually eight directors, a treasurer, secretary and librarian. This elegant building is now much out of repair, and one-third of the books in the library were either carried off, or destroyed by the British during the war.

Providence is situated on Providence river, about thirty miles north-west of Newport, in latitude 41° 51′ north. It is at present by far the most flourishing town in the State. It contains 700 houses, and upwards of 4300 inhabitants. Its public buildings are a college, an elegant church for Baptists, two for Congregationalists, besides others for other denominations. This town carries on a large foreign trade, and an extensive and gainful traffic with the surrounding country. The town is situated on both sides of the river, and is connected by a commodious bridge.

The inhabitants of Providence, the last year, manufactured 100,000 yards of cloth more than in any year since the peace. This cloth, at a moderate valuation, will amount to 20,000 dollars.

This town, and Newport, and a few others, have, from the first, firmly opposed the late iniquitous measures of their infatuated legislature.

Bristol is a pleasant little town, about sixteen miles north of Newport, on the Main. It has an excellent soil, and is almost as remarkable for the production of onions, as Wethersfield in Connecticut.

Fishes.] In the rivers and bays are plenty of sheeps-head, black fish, herring, shad lobsters, oysters and clams; and around the shores of Rhode-Island, besides those already mentioned, are cod, halibut, mackerel, bass, haddock, &c. &c. to the amount of more than seventy different kinds, so that in the seasons of fish, the markets are alive with them. Travellers are agreed that Newport furnishes the best fish market in the world.

Religion.] The constitution of the state admits of no religious establishments, any further than depends upon the voluntary choice of individuals. All men professing one Supreme Being, are equally protected by the laws, and no particular sect can claim pre-eminence. This unlimited liberty in religion is one principal cause why there is such a variety of religious sects in Rhode-Island. The baptists are the most numerous of any denomination in the state. In 1784 they had thirty congregations. These,

as,

as well as the other baptists in New-England, are chiefly upon the Calvinistic plan as to doctrines, and independents in regard to church government. There are, however, some who profess the Arminian tenets, and are called Arminian baptists Others observe the Jewish or Saturday Sabbath, from a persuasion that it was one of the ten commandments, which they plead are all in their nature moral, and were never abrogated in the New Testament, and must at least be deemed of equal validity for public worship as any day particularly set apart by Jesus Christ and his apostles. These are called sabbatarian, or seventh-day baptists. There are others who are called separate baptists. The baptists in general refuse to communicate with other denominations; for they hold that immersion is necessary to baptism, and that baptism is necessary to communion. Therefore they suppose it inconsistent for them to admit unbaptised persons (as others are in their view) to join with them in this ordinance. The baptists are encreasing in New-England; but their increase is much more rapid in Kentucky and the southern states. The number of their congregations in New-England in 1784, was 155. Of these seventy-one were in Massachusetts; twenty-five in New-Hampshire; thirty in Rhode-Island, and twenty-nine in Connecticut †.

The other religious denominations in Rhode-Island are congregationalists, friends or quakers, episcopalians, moravians and jews. There is also a small number of the universal friends, the disciples of Jemima Wilkinson. Besides these there is a considerable number of the people who can be reduced to no particular denomination, and are, as to religion, strictly *Nothingarians*.

In some parts of this state, public worship is attended with punctuality and propriety, in others they make the sabbath a day of visiting and festivity; and in others they esteem every day alike, having no place of meeting for the purpose of religious worship. They pay no taxes for the support of ecclesiastics of any denomination; and a peculiarity which distinguishes this state from every other protestant country in the known world is, that no contract formed by the minister with his people, for his salary, is valid in law. So that ministers are dependent wholly on the integrity of the people for their support, since their salaries are not recoverable by law. It ought in justice, however, to be observed, that the clergy in general are liberaly maintained, and none who merit it have reason to complain for want of support

Literature] The literature of this state is confined principally to the towns of Newport and Providence. There are men of learning and abilities scattered through other towns, but they are rare. The bulk of the inhabitants in other parts of the state, are involved in greater ignorance perhaps than in any other part of New-England. An impartial history of their transactions since the peace, would evince the truth of the above observations.

At Providence, is Rhode-Island college. The charter for founding this Seminary of Learning was granted by the general assembly of the state, An. 1764. in consequence of the petition of a large number of the most

† *See Backus's Church Hist. of New-England.*

moſt reſpectable characters in the ſtate. By the charter, the corporation of the college conſiſts of two ſeparate branches, by the name of the Truſtees and Fellows of Rhode-Iſland college †, with diſtinct, ſeparate and reſpective powers. The number of truſtees is thirty-ſix, of whom twenty-two are of the denomination called baptiſts, five of the denomination of friends, five epiſcopalians, and four congregationaliſts. The ſame proportion of the different denominations to continue *in perpetuum*. The number of the fellows (incluſive of the preſident, who is a fellow *ex officio*) is twelve, of whom eight are baptiſts, the others choſen indiſcriminately from any denomination of proteſtants. The concurrence of both branches, by a majority of each, is neceſſary for the validity of an act, except adjuding and conferring degrees, which excluſively belongs to the fellowſhip as a learned faculty. The preſident muſt be a baptiſt, profeſſors and other officers of inſtruction are not limited to any particular denomination. There is annually a general meeting of the corporation, on the firſt Wedneſday in September, at which time the public commencement is held.

This inſtitution was founded at Warren, in the county of Briſtol, and the commencement held there in 1769, at which time ſeven perſons, alumni of the college, received the degrees of Batchelor of Arts.

In the year 1770, the college was removed to Providence, where a large, elegant building was erected for its accommodation, by the generous donations of individuals, moſtly from the town of Providence. It is ſituated on a hill to the eaſt of the town; and while its elevated ſituation renders it delightful, by commanding an extenſive, variegated proſpect, it furniſhes it with a pure ſalubrious air. The edifice is of brick, four ſtories high, 150 feet long, and 46 wide, with a projection of ten feet each ſide. It has an entry lengthways, with rooms on each ſide. There are forty-eight rooms for the accommodation of ſtudents, and eight larger ones for public uſes. This roof is covered with ſlate.

From December 1776, to June 1782, the college edifice was uſed by the French and American troops for an hoſpital and barracks, ſo that the courſe of education was interrupted during that period. No degrees were conferred from 1776 to 1786. From 1786 the college again became regular, and is now very flouriſhing, containing upwards of ſixty ſtudents.

This inſtitution is under the inſtruction of a precedent, a profeſſor of natural and experimental philoſophy, a profeſſor of mathematics and aſtronomy, a profeſſor of natural hiſtory, and three tutors. The ſeveral claſſes are inſtructed in the learned languages, and the various arts and ſciences. The ſtudies of the freſhman year, are the Latin and Greek languages, Engliſh grammar and rhetoric. Of the ſophimore, Guthrie's geography, Ward's arithmetic, Hammond's algebra, Sheridan's rhetorical grammar, and lectures on elocution, Watt's logic, and Cicero de Oratore. Of the junior, Horace, Kaim's elements of criticiſm, Euclid's elements, Atkinſon's epitome, Love's ſurveying, Martin's grammar, Philoſophia Britannica, and Ferguſon's aſtronomy. Of the ſenior, Lucian's

† *This name to be altered when any generous Benefactor ariſes, who by his liberal donation ſhall entitle himſelf to the honour of giving the college a name.*

cian's dialogues, Locke's eſſay on the human underſtanding, Hutchinſon's moral philoſophy, Bolingbroke on hiſtory, and a review of all the ſtudies of the ſeveral years. Every year are frequent exerciſes in ſpeaking and the various kinds of compoſition. There are two examinations, ſeveral public exhibitions for ſpeaking, and three vacations annually. The inſtitution has a library of between two and three thouſand volumes, containing a valuable collection of antient and modern authors. Alſo a ſmall, but very valuable philſophical apparatus. Nearly all the funds of the college are at intereſt in the treaſury of the ſtate, and amount to almoſt two thouſand pounds.

At Newport there is a flouriſhing academy, under the direction of a rector and tutors, which teach the learned languages, Engliſh grammar, geography, &c.

Societies.] A marine ſociety was eſtabliſhed at Newport in 1752, for the purpoſe of relieving diſtreſſed widows and orphans of maritime brethren, and of ſuch of their ſociety as may need aſſiſtance.

Curioſities.] About four miles north-eaſt of Providence lies a ſmall village, called Pawtucket, a place of ſome trade, and famous for lamprey eels. Through this village runs Pawtucket river, which empties into Providence river, two miles eaſt of the town. In this river is a beautiful fall of water, directly over which a bridge has been built, which divides the Commonwealth of Maſſachuſetts from the ſtate of Rhode-Iſland. The fall, in its whole length, is upwards of fifty feet. The water paſſes through ſeveral chaſms in a rock which runs diametrically acroſs the bed of the ſtream, and ſerves as a dam to the water. Several mills have been erected upon theſe falls; and the ſpouts and channels which have been conſtructed to conduct the ſtreams to their reſpective wheels, and the bridge, have taken very much from the beauty and grandeur of the ſcene; which would otherwiſe have been indeſcribably charming and romantic.

Conſtitution.] The conſtitution of this ſtate is founded on the charter granted by Charles II. in the fourteenth year of his reign; and the frame of government was not eſſentially altered by the revolution. The legiſlature of the ſtate conſiſts of two branches—a ſenate or upper houſe, compoſed of ten members, called in the charter *aſſiſtants*—and a houſe of repreſentatives, compoſed of deputies from the ſeveral towns. The members of the legiſlature are choſen twice a year; and there are two ſeſſions of this body annually, viz. on the firſt Wedneſday in May, and the laſt Wedneſday in October.

The ſupreme executive power is veſted in a governor, or in his abſence, in the deputy governor, who are choſen annually in May by the ſuffrages of the people. The governor preſides in the upper houſe, but has only a ſingle voice in enacting laws.

There is one ſupreme judicial court, compoſed of five judges, whoſe juriſdiction extends over the whole ſtate, and who hold two courts annually in each county.

In each county, there is an inferior court of common pleas and general ſeſſions of the peace, held twice a year for the trial of cauſes not capital, ariſing within the county, from which an appeal lies to the ſupreme court.

The

The juſtices of the peace, as in other ſtates, have cognizance of ſmall cauſes; and ſince the revolution their powers have been enlarged to an uncommon, if not to a dangerous extent.

Hiſtory.] This ſtate was firſt ſettled from Maſſachuſetts. Motives of the ſame kind with thoſe which are well known to have occaſioned the ſettlement of moſt of the other United States, gave birth to this. The emigrants from England who came to Maſſachuſetts, though they did not perfectly agree in religious ſentiments, had been tolerably united by their common zeal againſt the ceremonies of the church of England. But as ſoon as they were removed from eccleſiaſtical courts, and poſſeſſed of a patent allowing liberty of conſcience, they fell into diſputes and contentions among themſelves. And notwithſtanding all their ſufferings and complaints in England, excited by the principle of uniformity, (ſuch is human nature) the majority here were as fond of this principle, as thoſe from whoſe perſecution they had fled.

The true grounds of religious liberty were not embraced or underſtood at this time by any ſect. While all diſclaimed perſecution for the ſake of conſcience, a regard for the public peace, and for the preſervation of the church of Chriſt from infection, together with the obſtinacy of the heretics, was urged in juſtification of that, which, ſtripped of all its diſguiſes, the light of nature and the laws of Chriſt in the moſt ſolemn manner condemn.

Mr. Roger Williams, a miniſter, who came over to Salem in 1630, was charged with holding a variety of errors, and was at length baniſhed from the then colony of Maſſachuſetts, and afterwards from Plymouth, *as a diſturber of the peace of the Church and Commonwealth*; and, as he ſays, 'a bull of excommunication was ſent after him.' He had ſeveral treaties with Myantonomo and Canonicus, the Narraganſett ſachems, in 1634 and 1635, who aſſured him he ſhould not want for land. And in 1634-5 he and twenty others, his followers, who were voluntary exiles, came to a placed called by the Indians Mooſhauſick, and by him *Providence.*

Here they ſettled, and though ſecured from the Indians by the terror of the Engliſh, they for a conſiderable time greatly ſuffered through fatigue and want

The unhappy diviſions and contentions in Maſſachuſetts ſtill prevailed; and in the year 1636 Governor Winthrop ſtrove to exterminate the opinions which he diſapproved. Accordingly a ſynod was called at Newtown (now Cambridge) on the 30th of Auguſt, when eighty erroneous opinions were preſented, debated, and condemned; and a court held in October following, at the ſame place, baniſhed a few leading perſons of thoſe who were accuſed of theſe errors, and cenſured ſeveral others; not, it ſeems, for holding theſe opinions, but for ſeditious conduct. The diſputes which occaſioned this diſturbance, were about the ſame points as the five queſtions debated between the ſynod and Mr. Cotton, which are thus deſcribed by Dr. Mather: They were 'about the order of things in our union to our Lord Jeſus Chriſt; about the influence of our faith in the application of his righteouſneſs; about the uſe of our ſanctification in evidencing our juſtification; and about the conſideration of our Lord Jeſus Chriſt by men yet under a covenant of works; briefly, they were about the

points whereon depend the grounds of our assurance of blessedness in a better world†.

The whole colony of Massachusetts, at this time, was in a violent ferment. The election of civil officers was carried by a party spirit, excited by religious dissention Those who were banished by the court, joined by a number of their friends, were in quest of a new settlement, and came to Providence, where they were kindly entertained by Mr. R. Williams, who, by the assistance of Sir Henry Vane, jun. procured for them, from the Indians, Aquidnick, now Rhode-Island. Here, in 1638, the people, eighteen in number, formed themselves into a body politick, and chose Mr. Coddington, their leader, to be their judge, or chief magistrate. This same year the sachems signed the deed, or grant of the island; for which *Indian gift*, it is said, they paid very dearly, by being obliged to make repeated purchases of the same lands from several claimants.

The other parts of the state were purchased of the natives at several successive periods.

In the year 1643, the people being destitute of patent, or any legal authority, Mr. Williams went to England as agent, and by the assistance of Sir Henry Vane, jun. obtained of the Earl of Warwick (then governor and admiral of all the plantations) and his council, 'a free and absolute charter of civil incorporation, by the name of the incorporation of Providence Plantations in Narraganset Bay.' This lasted until the charter granted by Charles II. in 1663, by which the incorporation was stiled, 'The English colony of Rhode-Island and Providence Plantations in New-England.' This charter, without any essential alteration, has remained the foundation of their government ever since.

As the original inhabitants of this state were persecuted, at least in their own opinion, for the sake of conscience, a most liberal and free toleration was established by them. So little has the civil authority to do with religion here, that, as has been already hinted, no contract between a minister and a society (unless incorporated for that purpose) is of any force. It is probably for these reasons that so many different sects have ever been found here; and that the Sabbath and all religious institutions have been more neglected in this, than in any other of the New-England states. Mr. Williams is said to have become a Baptist in a few years after his settling at Providence, and to have formed a church of that persuasion; which, in 1653, disagreed about the rite of laying on of hands; some holding it necessary to church-communion, and others judging it indifferent; upon which the church was divided into two parts. At Newport Mr. John Clark and some others formed a church, in 1644, on the principles of the Baptists; which church was afterwards divided like that at Providence.

In 1720, there was a congregational church gathered at Newport, and the Reverend Nathaniel Clap was ordained as pastor. Out of this church another was formed in 1728. The worship of God according to the rites of the church of England was instituted here in 1706, by the Society for propagating the gospel in foreign parts; and in 1738 there were seven worshipping

† Mag. B. 7. P. 17.

worſhipping aſſemblies in this town, and a large ſociety of Quakers at Portſmouth at the other end of the iſland.

In 1730, the colony was filled with inhabitants; and chiefly by the natural increaſe of the firſt ſettlers. The number of ſouls in the ſtate at this time was 17,935; of which no more than 985 were Indians, and 1648 negroes.

In 1738, there were above one hundred ſail of veſſels belonging to Newport.

The colony of Rhode-Iſland, from its local ſituation, has ever been leſs expoſed to the incurſions of the neighbouring Indians, and from the French from Canada, than their neighbours in Maſſachuſetts and Connecticut. Many of the colony have, from its firſt eſtabliſhment, profeſſed the principles of the Quakers, which forbad them to fight. For theſe reaſons, the colony has been very little concerned in the old wars with the French and Indians. In the expedition againſt Port-Royal in 1710, and in the abortive attempt againſt Canada in 1711, they had ſome forces. Towards the intended expedition againſt Canada in 1746, they raiſed 300 men, and equipped a ſloop of war with 100 ſeamen; but in their voyage to Nova-Scotia, they met with misfortunes and returned. Soon after the deſign was dropped.

Through the whole of the late unnatural war with Great-Britain, the inhabitants of this ſtate have manifeſted a patriotic ſpirit; their troops have behaved gallantly, and they are honoured in having produced the ſecond general in the field.

The rage for paper-money in Rhode-Iſland is not peculiar to the preſent time. From 1710 to 1750, Dr. Douglaſs obſerves that the moſt beneficial buſineſs of the colony was, 'Banking or negociating a *baſe*, *fraudulent*, *paper-money currency*, which was ſo contrived, that amongſt themſelves it came out at about two and an half per cent. intereſt, and they lent it to the neighbouring colonies at ten per cent. a moſt bare-faced cheat. The intereſt of theſe public iniquitous frauds went, one quarter to the ſeveral townſhips to defray their charges; the other three quarters were lodged in the treaſury, to defray the government charges of the colony *.

In 1744, there was an emiſſion of £.160,000 O. T. in paper bills of credit, under pretence of the Spaniſh and impending French war. But it was diſtributed among the people by way of loan at four per cent. intereſt for the firſt ten years, after which the principal was to be paid off by degrees in ten years more without intereſt. This ſoon depreciated.

In 1750, the current bills amounted to £.525,335 O. T. which in its depreciated ſtate was then ſuppoſed, by the wiſe and honeſt, ſufficient for all the purpoſes of the colony; yet it was then meditated to emit £.200,000 O. T. more upon loan. This Dr. Douglaſs ſuppoſes could not have been deſigned as 'a further medium of trade, but a *knaviſh device of fraudulent debtors of the loan of money*, to pay off their loans at a very depreciated value †.' He again obſerves §, 'Their deſign is by quantity to depreciate the value of their bills; and lands mortgaged for public bills

* Douglaſs Sum. V. II. p. 99.
† Ibid. p. 107.
§ P. 87.

will be redeemed in these *minorated* bills, at a very considerable real value.' Were this writer living, would he not now speak the same language respecting the present state of Rhode-Island?

But enough has already been said * upon the paper-money, injustice, and political confusion which pervade this unhappy state. I will only observe, that these measures have deprived the state of great numbers of its worthy and most respectable inhabitants; they have had a most pernicious influence upon the morals of the people, by legally depriving the widow and the orphan of their just dues, and otherwise establishing iniquity by law, and have occasioned a ruinous stagnation of trade. It is hoped the time is not far distant, when a wise and efficient government will abolish these iniquitous laws, and restore tranquility to the state.

CONNECTICUT.

SITUATION and EXTENT.

Length 82, Breadth 57 } Between { 41° and 42° 2′ North Latitude. 1° 50′ and 3° 20′ East Longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by Massachusetts; east, by Rhode Island; south, by the sound, which divides it from Long-Island; west, by the state of New-York.

The divisional line between Connecticut and Massachusetts, as settled in 1713, was found to be about seventy-two miles in length. The line dividing Connecticut from Rhode Island, was settled in 1728, and found to be about forty-five miles. The sea coast, from the mouth of Pauka tuk river, which forms a part of the eastern boundary of Connecticut, in a direct southwestwardly line to the mouth of Byram river, is reckoned about ninety miles. The line between Connecticut and New-York run from latitude 41° to latitude 42° 2′; 72 miles †. Connecticut contains about 4,674 square miles; equal to about 2,960,000 acres.

Rivers.] The principal rivers in this state are Connecticut, described under New-England, Housatonik, the Thames, and their branches. One branch of the Housatonik § rises in Lanesborough, the other in Windsor, both in Berkshire county in Massachusetts. It passes through a numb

* See Hist. of United States, p. 120, &c.

† Douglass.

§ An Indian name, signifying *Over the Mountain.*

a number of pleaſant towns, and empties into the ſound between Stratford and Milford. It is navigable twelve miles to Derby. A bar of ſhells, at its mouth, obſtructs its navigation for large veſſels. In this river, between Saliſbury and Canaan, is a cataract, where the water of the whole river, which is 150 yards wide, falls about ſixty feet perpendicularly, in a perfectly white ſheet. A copious miſt ariſes, in which floating rainbows are ſeen in various places at the ſame time, exhibiting a ſcene exceedingly grand and beautiful.

Naugatuk is a ſmall river which riſes in Torrington, and empties into the Houſatonik at Derby. Farmington river riſes in Becket, in Maſſachuſetts, and after a very crooked courſe, part of which is through the fine meadows of Farmington, it empties into Connecticut river in Windſor.

The Thames empties into Long-Iſland ſound at New-London. It is navigable fourteen miles, to Norwich Landing. Here it loſes its name, and branches into Shetucket, on the eaſt, and Norwich or Little river, on the weſt. The city of Norwick ſtands on the tongue of land between theſe rivers. Little river, about a mile from its mouth, has a remarkable and very romantic cataract. A rock ten or twelve feet in perpendicular height, extends quite acroſs the channel of the river. Over this the whole river pitches, in one entire ſheet, upon a bed of rocks below. Here the river is compreſſed into a very narrow channel between two craggy cliffs, one of which towers to a conſiderable height. The channel deſcends gradually, is very crooked and covered with pointed rocks. Upon theſe the water ſwiftly tumbles, foaming with the moſt violent agitation, fifteen or twenty rods, into a broad baſon which ſpreads before it. At the bottom of the perpendicular falls, the rocks are curiouſly excavated by the conſtant pouring of the water. Some of the cavities, which are al of a circular form, are five or ſix feet deep. The ſmoothneſs of the water above its deſcent—the regularity and beauty of the perpendicular fall—the tremendous roughneſs of the other, and the craggy, towering cliff which impends the whole, preſent to the view of the ſpectator a ſcene indeſcribably delightful and majeſtic. On this river are ſome of the fineſt mill ſeats in New-England, and thoſe immediately below the falls, occupied by Lathrop's mills, are perhaps not exceeded by any in the world. Acroſs the mouth of this river is a broad, commodious bridge, in the form of a wharf, built at a great expence.

Shetucket river, the other branch of the Thames, four miles from its mouth, receives Quinnabog, which has its ſource in Brimfield, in Maſſachuſetts; thence paſſing through Sturbridge and Dudley in Maſſachuſetts, it croſſes into Connecticut, and divides Pomfret from Killingly, Canterbury from Plainfield, and Liſbon from Preſton, and then mingles with the Shetucket. In paſſing through this hilly country, it tumbles over many falls, and affords a vaſt number of mill ſeats. The ſource of the Shetucket is not far from that of the Quinnabog. It has the name of Willamantik while paſſing through Stafford, and between Tolland and Willington, Coventry and Mansfield. Below Windham it takes the name of Shetucket, and empties as above. Theſe rivers are fed by numberleſs brooks from every part of the adjacent country. At the mouth of Shetucket, is a bridge of timber 124 feet in length, ſupported

at each end by pillars, and held up in the middle by braces on the top, in the nature of an arch.

Eaſt, or North Haven river riſes in Southington, not far from a bend in Farmington river, and paſſing through Wallingford and North Haven, falls into New-Haven harbour. It has been meditated to connect the ſource of this river with Farmington river.

Mill river and Weſt river are inconſiderable ſtreams, bounding the city of New-Haven on the eaſt and weſt.

Weſt of the Houſatonik, are a number of ſmall rivers which fall into the ſound. Among theſe is Byram river, noticeable as forming a part of the boundary between New-York and Connecticut. But neither this, nor any of the others, are conſiderable enough to merit particular deſcriptions.

Harbours.] The two principal harbours are at New-London and New-Haven. The former opens to the ſouth. From the light-houſe, which ſtands at the mouth of the harbour, to the town, is about three miles; the breadth is three quarters of a mile, and in ſome places more. The harbour has from five to ſix fathom water—a clear bottom—tough ooze, and as far as one mile above the town is entirely ſecure, and commodious for large ſhips.

New-Haven harbour is greatly inferior to that of New-London. It is a bay which ſets up northerly from the ſound, about four miles. Its entrance is about half a mile wide. It has very good anchorage, and two and an half fathom at low water, and three fathom and four feet at common tides.

The whole of the ſea coaſt is indented with harbours, many of which are ſafe and commodious, but are not ſufficiently uſed to merit a deſcription.

Climate, Soil, and Productions.] Connecticut, though ſubject to the extremes of heat and cold in their ſeaſons, and to frequent ſudden changes, is very healthful. As many as one in forty ſix of the inhabitants of Connecticut, who were living in 1774, were upwards of ſeventy years old. From accurate calculation it is found that about one in eight live to the age of ſeventy years and upwards, one in thirteen to the age of eighty years, and one in about thirty to the age of ninety †.

In the maritime towns the weather is variable, according as the wind blows from the ſea or land. As you advance into the country, the ſea breezes have leſs effect upon the air, and conſequently the weather is leſs variable. The ſhorteſt day is eight hours and fifty-eight minutes, and the

† *The following was extracted from the minutes of the Rev. Dr. Wales, formerly miniſter of Milford, now profeſſor of divinity in Yale College.*

'*From January* 1, 1771, *to January* 1, 1777, 339 *perſons died at Milford; of which* 33, *or about one-ſeventh part, were upwards of* 70 *years old; and* 84, *or about one-third part of the whole, were under* 10 *years.*

'*From January* 1, 1771, *to June* 3, 1782, *died at Milford,* 417 *perſons; of which* 31, *or about one-thirteenth part of the whole number, were* 80 *years old and upward.*'

Other calculations of a ſimilar kind, made in different parts of the ſtate from the bills of mortality, confirm the juſtneſs of the above proportion.

the longeſt fifteen hours. The northweſt winds, in the winter ſeaſon, are often extremely ſevere and piercing, occaſioned by the great body of ſnow which lies concealed from the diſſolving influence of the ſun in the immenſe foreſts north and northweſt. The clear and ſerene temperature of the ſky, however, makes amends for the ſeverity of the weather, and is favourable to health and longevity. Connecticut is generally broken land, made up of mountains, hills, and vallies; and is exceedingly well watered. Some ſmall parts of it are thin and barren. It lies in the fifth and ſixth northern climates, and has a ſtrong, fertile ſoil. Its principal productions are Indian corn, rye, wheat in many parts of the ſtate, oats and barley, which are heavy and good, and of late buck-wheat—flax in large quantities—ſome hemp, potatoes of ſeveral kinds, pumpkins. turnips, peas, beans, &c. &c. fruits of all kinds, which are common to the climate. The ſoil is very well calculated for paſture and mowing, which enables the farmers to feed large numbers of neat cattle and horſes. Actual calculation has evinced, that any given quantity of the beſt mowing land in Connecticut, produces about twice as much clear profit, as the ſame quantity of the beſt wheat land in the ſtate of New-York. Many farmers, in the eaſtern part of the ſtate, have lately found their advantage in raiſing mules, which are carried from the parts of Norwich and New-London, to the Weſt-India iſlands, and yield a handſome profit. The beef, pork, butter, and cheeſe of Connecticut are equal to any in the world.

Trade.] The trade of Connecticut is principally with the Weſt India iſlands, and is carried on in veſſels from ſixty to one hundred and forty tons. The exports conſiſt of horſes, mules, oxen, oak ſtaves, hoops, pine boards, oak plank, beans, Indian corn, fiſh, beef, pork, &c. Horſes, live cattle and lumber, are permitted in the Dutch, Daniſh, and French ports. Beef and fiſh are liable to ſuch heavy duties in the French iſlands, as that little profit ariſes to the merchant who ſends them to their ports. Pork and flour are prohibited. As the ordinance making free ports in the French Weſt-India iſlands extends to all foreigners, the price of molaſſes and other articles, has been greatly enhanced by the Engliſh purchaſes for Canada and Nova-Scotia; ſo that the trade of Connecticut with the French Weſt-India iſlands is not profitable. Cotton, cocoa, indigo, and ſugars are not permitted to be brought away by Americans. The ſeverity with which theſe prohibitory laws are adminiſtred is ſuch, as that theſe articles cannot be ſmuggled.

Connecticut has a large number of coaſting veſſels employed in carrying the produce of the ſtate to other ſtates.—To Rhode-Iſland, Maſſachuſets, and New-Hampſhire they carry pork, wheat, corn, and rye.—To North and South Carolinas and Georgia, butter, cheeſe, ſalted beef, cyder, apples, potatoes, hay, &c. and receive in return, rice, indigo, and money. But as New-York is nearer, and the ſtate of the markets always well known, much of the produce of Connecticut, eſpecially of the weſtern parts, is carried there; particularly pot and pearl aſhes, flax-ſeed, beef, pork, cheeſe, and butter, in large quantities. Moſt of the produce of Connecticut river from the parts of Maſſachuſetts, New-Hampſhire, and Vermont, as well as of Connecticut, which are adjacent, goes to the ſame market. Conſiderable quantities of the produce of the eaſtern parts of the ſtate are marketted at Boſton and Providence.

Th-

The value of the whole exported produce and commodities from this ſtate, before the year 1774, was then eſtimated at about £.200,000 lawful money, annually. Since this time no accurate eſtimate has been made, ſo that it is impoſſible to tell whether the amount has ſince been increaſed or diminiſhed.

In 1774, the number of ſhipping in Connecticut, was 180; their tonnage 10,317; ſeafaring men 1162; beſides upwards of twenty ſail of coaſting veſſels, which employed about ninety ſeamen. This ſtate has not yet fully recovered the confuſion in which it was involved by the late war; ſo that the number of ſhipping, &c. has not, at any period ſince 1774, been aſcertained with accuracy. It is probable, however, conſidering the loſſes ſuſtained by the war, the delicacy of the ſhip-building buſineſs, and the number of unfortunate ſhipwrecks, and loſſes by hurricanes in the Weſt-Indies, that the ſhipping and ſeamen are not now ſo numerous as in 1774.

The number of ſhipping from the port of New London employed laſt year in the European and Weſt-India trade, was four ſhips, one ſnow fifty-four brigantines, thirty-two ſcooners, and forty-five ſloops. The number of horſes and cattle exported from the diſtrict round New-London, from the 10th of January, 1787, to the 10th of January, 1788, was 6917; beſides jack-aſſes imported and exported, not included. From 1786 to 1787, the number was 6671, ſo that the laſt year exceeded the other 246. From March, 1787, to January, 1788, 1454 horſes, 700 oxen and 23 cows, were exported from the port of Middleton.

Manufactures.] The farmers in Connecticut and their families are moſtly clothed in plain, decent, homeſpun cloth. Their linens and woollens are manufactured in the family way; and although they are generally of a coarſer kind, they are of a ſtronger texture, and much more durable than thoſe imported from France and Great-Britain. Many of their cloths are fine and handſome.

The woollen manufactory at Hartford has already been mentioned. The legiſlature of the ſtate have encouraged it, and it bids fair to grow into importance. We have alſo mentioned Mr. Chittendon's uſeful Machine for bending and cutting card teeth. This machine is put in motion by a manderil twelve inches in length, and one inch in diameter. Connected with the manderil are ſix parts of the machine, independent of each other; the firſt, introduces a certain length of wire into the chops of the *coi one*; the ſecond, ſhuts the chops and holds faſt the wire in the middle until it is finiſhed; the third, cuts off the wire; the fourth, doubles the tooth in proper form; the fifth, makes the laſt bend; and the ſixth, delivers the finiſhed tooth from the machine. The manderil is moved by a band wheel, five feet in diameter, turned by a crank. One revolution of the manderil makes one tooth; ten are made in a ſecond, and 36,000 in an hour, &c. as has been already obſerved (P. 88.) With one machine like this, teeth enough might be made to fill cards ſufficient for all the manufacturers in New-England. In New-Haven is a linen manufactory which flouriſhes; and one for cotton is about to be eſtabliſhed. In East Hartford is a glaſs work, a ſnuff and powder mill, and an iron work and ſlitting mill. Iron works are eſtabliſhed alſo at Saliſbury, Norwich and other parts of the ſtate. At Stafford is a furnace at which is made large

large quantities of hollow ware, and other ironmongery, ſufficient to ſupply the whole ſtate. Paper is manufactured at Norwich, Hartford, New-Haven, and in Litchfield county. Nails, of every ſize, are made in almoſt every town and village in Connecticut; ſo that conſiderable quantities can be exported to the neighbouring ſtates, and at a better rate than they can be had from Europe. Ironmongery, hats of the beſt kind, candles, leather, ſhoes and boots, are manufactured in this ſtate. We muſt not omit to mention wooden diſhes, and other wooden-ware, which are made in vaſt quantities in Suffield, and ſome few other places, and ſold in almoſt every part of the eaſtern ſtates. Oil-mills, of a new and very ingenious conſtruction, have been erected in ſeveral parts of the ſtate.

It appears from experiments made formerly in this ſtate, that a buſhel of ſun-flower ſeed yields a gallon of oil, and that an acre of ground planted with the ſeed at three feet apart, will yield between forty and fifty buſhels of the ſeed. This oil is as mild as ſweet oil, and is equally agreeable with ſallads, and as a medicine. It may moreover be uſed with advantage in paints, varniſhes, and ointments. From its being manufactured in our own country, it may always be procured and uſed in a freſh ſtate. The oil is preſſed from the ſeed in the ſame manner that cold drawn linſeed oil is obtained from flax ſeed, and with as little trouble. Sweet olive oil ſells for ſix ſhillings a quart. Should the oil of the ſun-flower ſell for only two-thirds of that price, the produce of an acre of ground, ſuppoſing it to yield only forty buſhels of the ſeed, will be thirty-two pounds, a ſum far beyond the product of an acre of ground in any kind of grain. The ſeed is raiſed with very little trouble, and grows in land of moderate fertility. It may be gathered and ſhelled, fit for the extraction of the oil, by women and children.

Civil diviſions and population.] Connecticut is divided into eight counties, viz. Hartford, New-Haven, New-London, Fairfield, Windham, Litchfield, Middleſex and Tolland. The counties are ſubdivided into upwards of eighty townſhips, each of which is a corporation, inveſted with power to hold lands, chooſe their own town officers, to make prudential laws, the penalty of tranſgreſſion not to exceed twenty ſhillings, and to chooſe their own repreſentatives to the general aſſembly. The townſhips are generally divided into two or more pariſhes, in each of which is one or more places for public worſhip.

The following table exhibits a view of the population, &c. of this ſtate in 1782. Since this time the counties of Middleſex and Tolland have been conſtituted, and a number of new townſhips, made up of diviſions of the old ones, have impoliticly * been incorporated.

* *The multiplication of townſhips increaſes the number of repreſentatives, which is already too great for the moſt democratical government, and unneceſſarily enhances the expence of maintaining civil government in the ſtate.*

TABLE

TABLE.

COUNTIES.	Towns where the Courts are held.	Number of Townſhips.	Males between 16 & 50	Total whites	Total Blacks Ind. & Negr.	Population for every ſquare mile about 45. Number of Females in the ſtate 103,735.
Hartford.	Hartford, Middleton, and Tolland *.	21	10,815	55,647	1320	
New-Haven.	New-Haven.	9	4,776	25,092	885	
New-London.	New-London and Norwich.	8	5,884	31,131	1920	
Fairfield.	Fairfield and Danbury.	10	5,755	29,722	1134	
Windham.	Windham.	12	5,361	28,185	485	
Litchfield.	Litchfield.	19	6,797	33,127	529	
	Total.	79	30,388	202,877	6273	

Connecticut is the moſt populous, in proportion to its extent, of any of the thirteen ſtates. It is laid out in ſmall farms, from fifty to three or four hundred acres each, which are held by the farmers in fee ſimple; and are generally cultivated as well as the nature of the ſoil will admit. The ſtate is chequered with innumerable roads or high ways, croſſing each other in every direction. A traveller, in any of theſe roads, even in the moſt unſettled parts of the ſtate, will ſeldom paſs more than two or three miles without finding a houſe or cottage, and a farm under ſuch improvements as to afford the neceſſaries for the ſupport of a family. The whole ſtate reſembles a well cultivated garden, which, with that degree of induſtry that is neceſſary to happineſs, produces the neceſſaries and conveniences of life in great plenty.

In 1756 the number of inhabitants in Connecticut was 130,611. In 1774, there were 197,856 ſouls. In 18 years the increaſe was 67,245. From 1774 to 1782, the increaſe was but 11,294 perſons. This comparatively ſmall increaſe of inhabitants may be ſatisfactorily accounted for from the deſtruction of the war, and the numerous emigrations to Vermont, the weſtern parts of New-Hampſhire, and other ſtates.

* *Middleton and Tolland, are now the ſhire towns of Middleſex and Tolland counties. Courts are alſo held at Haddam, which is the half ſhire town of Middleſex county.*

The

The inhabitants are almoſt entirely of Engliſh deſcent. There are no Dutch, French, or Germans, and very few Scotch or Iriſh people in any part of New England.

Character, Manners, &c.] In addition to what has been already ſaid on theſe particulars, under New England, it may be obſerved, that the people of Connecticut are remarkably fond of having all their diſputes, even thoſe of the moſt trivial kind, ſettled *according to law*. The prevalence of this litigious ſpirit, affords employment and ſupport for a numerous body of lawyers. The number of actions entered annually upon the ſeveral dockets in the ſtate, juſtifies the above obſervations. That party ſpirit, however, which is the bane of political happineſs, has not raged with ſuch violence in this ſtate as in Maſſachuſetts and Rhode-Iſland. Public proceedings have been conducted generally, and eſpecially of late, with much calmneſs and candour. The people are well informed in regard to their rights, and judicious in the methods they adopt to ſecure them. The ſtate was never in greater political tranquility than at preſent.

The clergy, who are numerous, and, as a body, very reſpectable, have hitherto preſerved a kind of ariſtocratical balance in the very democratical government of the ſtate; which has happily operated as a check upon the overbearing ſpirit of republicaniſm. It has been lamented that the unhappy religious diſputes which have too much prevailed among ſome of the clergy; and the too great attention that others have paid to their temporal concerns, to the neglect of their flocks; and an inattention to the qualifications of thoſe who have been admitted to the ſacred office, have, heretofore, conſiderably diminiſhed their influence. It is a pleaſing circumſtance that the rage for theological diſputation is abating, and greater ſtrictneſs is obſerved in the admiſſion of candidates to the miniſtry. Their influence is on the increaſe; and it is no doubt to be attributed, in part, to their increaſing influence, that an evident reformation in the manners of the people of this ſtate, has taken place ſince the peace. In regard to learning and abilities, the clergy at the preſent day are equal to their predeceſſors at any former period.

Religion] The beſt in the world, perhaps, for a republican government. As to the mode of exerciſing church government and diſcipline, it might not improperly be called a republican religion. Each church is a ſeparate juriſdiction, and claims authority to chooſe their own miniſter, to exerciſe government, and enjoy goſpel ordinances within itſelf. The churches, however, are not independent of each other; they are aſſociated for mutual benefit and convenience. The aſſociations have power to licenſe candidates for the miniſtry, to conſult for the general welfare, and to recommend meaſures to be adopted by the churches, but have no authority to enforce them. When diſputes ariſe in churches, councils are called by the parties to ſettle them; but their power is only adviſory. There are as many aſſociations in the ſtate as there are counties; and they meet twice in a year. Theſe are all combined in one general aſſociation, who meet annually.

All religions that are conſiſtent with the peace of ſociety, are tolerated in Connecticut; and a ſpirit of liberality and catholiciſm is increaſing. There are very few religious ſects in this ſtate. The bulk of the people are Congregationaliſts. Beſides theſe there are Epiſcopalians and Baptiſts; and

and formerly there was a ſociety of Sandimanians at New-Haven; but they are now reduced to a very ſmall number. The Epiſcopalian churches are reſpectable, and are under the ſuperintendence of a biſhop. There were twenty-nine congregations of the Baptiſts in 1784. Theſe congregations, with thoſe in the neighbouring ſtates, meet in aſſociations, by delegation, annually. Theſe aſſociations conſiſt of meſſengers choſen and ſent by the churches. Some of their principles are, 'The imputation of Adam's ſin to his poſterity—the inability of man to recover himſelf—effectual calling by ſovereign grace—juſtification by imputed righteouſneſs—immerſion for baptiſm, and that on profeſſion of faith and repentance—congregational churches, and their independency—reception into them upon evidence of ſound converſion.' The Baptiſts, during the late war, were warm and active friends to their country; and, by their early approbation of the new form of government *, have manifeſted the continuance of their patriotic ſentiments.

Damages ſuſtained in the late war.] After the eſtabliſhment of the peace in 1783, a number of gentlemen were appointed by the general aſſembly to eſtimate the damage done by the Britiſh troops, in the ſeveral towns which they ravaged. The following is the reſult of their enquiries.

	Amount of loſſes.
New London, (burnt by Benedict Arnold, September 6, 1781) - -	£. 145,788 15 6
Groton, - do. - do. -	23,217 6 0
Scattering towns, do. - do. -	9,806 9 2
	£. 178,812 10 8
Norwalk, (burnt by the Britiſh, 1779) -	£. 34,867 9 2
——— confiſcated property and other loſſes -	2,077 0 0
	£. 36,944 9 2
Greenwich - - - -	£. 6,365 11 8
——— loſſes of men not on oath - -	369 17 7
	£. 6,735 9 3
Fairfield, (burnt in 1779) - - -	£. 40,807 2 20
New-Haven, ravaged by Governor Tryon July 1779	£. 24,893 7 6
Eaſt Haven do. do. - -	4,882 16 4
Weſt-Haven do. do. - -	474 0 3
Other loſſes not before computed - -	586 0 1
	£. 30,836 4 2
Amount of the loſſes in the whole ſtate in money, valued as in 1774 - - -	£. 294,235 16 1

* *In their aſſociation at New Haven, October* 1787.

Chief

Chief Towns.] There are a great number of very pleaſant towns, both maritime and inland, in Connecticut. It contains five incorporated towns or cities. Two of theſe, Hartford and New-Haven, are the capitals of the ſtate. The general aſſembly is held at the former in May, and at the latter in October, annually

HARTFORD (city) is ſituated at the head of navigation on the weſt ſide of Connecticut river, about fifty miles from its entrance into the ſound. Its buildings are a ſtate-houſe—two churches for congregationaliſts—a diſtillery, beſides upwards of 300 dwelling-houſes, a number of which are handſomely built with brick.

The town is divided by a ſmall river, with high romantic banks. Over this river is a bridge connecting the two diviſions of the towns. Hartford is advantageouſly ſituated for trade, has a very fine back country, enters largely into the manufacturing buſineſs, and is a rich flouriſhing commercial town.

NEW-HAVEN (city) lies round the head of a bay, which makes up about four miles north from the ſound. It covers part of a large plain, which is circumſcribed on three ſides by high hills or mountains. Two ſmall rivers bound the city eaſt and weſt. The town was originally laid out in ſquares of ſixty rods. Many of theſe ſquares have been divided by croſs ſtreets. Four ſtreets run north-weſt and ſouth-eaſt, theſe are croſſed by others at right angels—Near the centre of the city is the public ſquare; on and around which are the public buildings, which are a ſtate-houſe, college and chapel, three churches for Congregationaliſts, and one for Epiſcopalians. Theſe are hall handſome and commodious buildings. The college, chapel, ſtate-houſe, and one of the churches are of brick. The public ſquare is encircled with rows of trees, which render it both convenient and delightful. Its beauty, however, is greatly diminiſhed by the burial ground, and ſeveral of the public buildings, which occupy a conſiderable part of it.

Many of the ſtreets are ornamented with two rows of trees, one on each ſide, which give the city a rural appearance. The proſpect from the ſteeples is greatly variegated, and extremely beautiful. There are about 500 dwelling-houſes in the city, principally of wood, and well built, and ſome of them elegant. The ſtreets are ſandy, but neat and cleanly. Within the limits of the city, are between 3 and 4000 ſouls. About one in ſeventy die annually; this proves the healthfulneſs of its climate. Indeed as to pleaſantneſs of ſituation, and ſalubrity of air, New-Haven is not exceeded by any city in America. It carries on a conſiderable trade with New-York, and the Weſt-India Iſlands, and is flouriſhing *.

NEW-LONDON (city) ſtands on the weſt ſide of the river Thames, near its entrance into the ſound, in latitude 41° 25′. It has two places for public worſhip, one for Epiſcopalians and one for Congregationaliſts, and about 300 dwelling-houſes. Its harbour is the beſt in Connecticut, and as good as any in the United-States; and is defended by fort Trumbull and

* The following account of the number of inhabitants in the city of New-

and fort Griſwold, the one in New-London, the other in Groton. A conſiderable part of the town was burnt by the infamous Benedict Arnold, in 1781. It has ſince been rebuilt.

NORWICH (city) ſtands at the head of Thames river, 12 or 14 miles north from New-London. It is a commercial city, has a rich and extenſive back country, and avails itſelf of its natural advantages at the head of navigation. Its ſituation upon a river which affords a great number of convenient ſeats for mills and water machines of all kinds, render it very eligible in a manufactural view.

The inhabitants are not neglectful of the advantages which nature has ſo liberally given them. They manufacture paper of all kinds, ſtockings,

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New-Haven, and their different ages, together with the number of buildings of different kinds, is the reſult of an accurate enumeration, September 20th, 1787. As it may furniſh ſufficient date from which, at any future enumeration, ſeveral valuable and inſtructive calculations may be made, it is thought proper to preſerve it.

Age	No.	Age	No.	Age	No.	Age	No.
1	173	23	58	45	28	67	3
2	113	24	55	46	22	68	5
3	100	25	66	47	34	69	3
4	119	26	51	48	9	70	6
5	107	27	55	49	12	71	1
6	100	28	50	50	35	72	2
7	87	29	40	51	17	73	2
8	96	30	66	52	14	74	2
9	89	31	45	53	16	75	3
10	85	32	42	54	12	76	1
11	70	33	38	55	17	77	5
12	80	34	33	56	18	78	2
13	86	35	49	57	10	79	3
14	95	36	50	58	11	80	4
15	71	37	31	59	7	81	
16	103	38	31	60	28	82	
17	62	39	36	61	11	83	1
18	84	40	52	62	8	84	1
19	64	41	29	63	9	85	
20	74	42	33	64	10	86	1
21	77	43	29	65	13	87	1
22	57	44	18	66	8	88	1

Total number of ſouls	3339	Number of Families	614
Seventeen years and under	1636	Dwelling-houſes	466
Upwards of ſeventeen	1703	Stores	103
Number of ſtudents	176	Barns and Shops	324
Males	1645	Total buildings of all kinds	893
Females	1694		

In 1724 there were 163 buildings of all kinds, from which we may conclude, the number of ſouls and buildings has doubled ſince that time, in periods of about twenty years.

clocks

clocks and watches, chaiſes, buttons, ſtone and earthen ware, wire, oil, chocolate, bells, anchors, and all kinds of forge work. The city contains about 450 dwelling-houſes, a court-houſe, and two churches for Congregationaliſts, and one for Epiſcopalians. The city is in three detached, compact diviſions; viz. Chelſea, at the landing, the town, and Bean-hill; in the latter diviſion is a flouriſhing academy; and in the town is a ſchool ſupported by a donation from Dr. Daniel Lathrop, deceaſed. The executive courts of law are held alternately at New-London and Norwich.

MIDDLETON (city) is pleaſantly ſituated on the weſtern bank of Connecticut river, fifteen miles ſouth of Hartford. It is the principal town in Middleſex county—has about 300 houſes—a court-houſe—one church for Congregationaliſts—one for Epiſcopalians—a naval office—and carries on a large and increaſing trade.

Four miles ſouth of Hartford is WETHERSFIELD, a very pleaſant town of between two and three hundred houſes ſituated on a fine ſoil, with an elegant brick church for Congregationaliſts. A fair is held here twice a year. This town is noted for raiſing onions.

Windſor, Farmington, Litchfield, Milford, Stratford, Fairfield and Guilford, are all conſiderable and very pleaſant towns.

Curioſities.] Two miles weſt of New-Haven is a mountain, on the top of which is a cave, remarkable for having been the reſidence of generals Whaley and Goff, two of the judges of Charles I. who was beheaded. They arrived at Boſton July 27th, 1660, and came to New-Haven the March following. May 11th, 1661, they retired and concealed themſelves behind Weſt-mountain, three miles from New-Haven; and the 19th of Auguſt, they removed to Milford, where they lived concealed until the 13th of October, 1664; when they returned to New-Haven, and immediately proceeded to Hadley, where they remained concealed for about ten years, in which time Whaley died. Goffe ſoon after abdicated. In 1665, John Dixwell, Eſq another of the king's judges, viſited them while at Hadley, and afterwards proceeded to New-Haven, where he lived many years, and was known by the name of John Davis. Here he died, and was buried in the public burying-place, where his grave-ſtone is ſtanding to this day, with this inſcription, 'J. D Eſq. deceaſed March 18th, in the 82d year of his age, 1688.'

In the town of Pomfret is a cave rendered remarkable by the humorous adventure of General Putnam. This cave is deſcribed, and the ſtory elegantly told by Colonel Humphreys, in his life of that hero. The ſtory and the deſcription I ſhall inſert in his own words.

Soon after Mr. Putnam removed to Connecticut, the wolves, then very numerous, broke into his ſheep-fold, and killed ſeventy fine ſheep and goats, beſides wounding many lambs and kids. This havoc was committed by a ſhe-wolf, which, with her annual whelps, had for ſeveral years infeſted the vicinity. The young were commonly deſtroyed by the vigilance of the hunters, but the old one was too ſagacious to come within reach of gun-ſhot: upon being cloſely purſued, ſhe would generally fly to the weſtern woods, and return the next winter with another litter of whelps.

This

This wolf, at length, became such an intolerable nuisance, that Mr. Putnam entered into a combination with five of his neighbours to hunt alternately until they could destroy her. Two, by rotation, were to be constantly in pursuit. It was known, that, having lost the toes from one foot, by a steel trap, she made one track shorter than the other. By this vestige, the pursuers recognized, in a light snow, the route of this pernicious animal. Having followed her to Connecticut river, and found she had turned back in a direct course towards Pomfret, they immediately returned, and by ten the next morning the blood-hounds had driven her into a den, about three miles distant from the house of Mr. Putnam: the people soon collected with dogs, guns, straw, fire and sulphur, to attack the common enemy. With this apparatus several unsuccessful efforts were made to force her from the den. The hounds came back badly wounded, and refused to return. The smoke of blazing straw had no effect. Nor did the fumes of burnt brimstone, with which the cavern was filled, compel her to quit the retirement. Wearied with such fruitless attempts (which had brought the time to ten o'clock at night) Mr. Putnam tried once more to make his dog enter, but in vain; he proposed to his negro man to go down into the cavern and shoot the wolf: the negro declined the hazardous service. Then it was that their master, angry at the disappointment, and declaring that he was ashamed to have a coward in his family, resolved himself to destroy the ferocious beast, lest she should escape through some unknown fissure of the rock. His neighbours strongly remonstrated against the perilous enterprize: but he, knowing that wild animals were intimidated by fire, and having provided several strips of birch-bark, the only combustible material which he could obtain, that would afford light in this deep and darksome cave, prepared for his descent. Having, accordingly, divested himself of his coat and waistcoat, and having a long rope fastened round his legs, by which he might be pulled back, at a concerted signal, he entered head foremost, with the blazing torch in his hand

The aperture of the den, on the east side of a very high ledge of rocks, is about two feet square; from thence it descends obliquely fifteen feet, then running horizontally about ten more, it ascends gradually sixteen feet towards its termination. The sides of this subterraneous cavity are composed of smooth and solid rocks, which seem to have been divided from each other by some former earthquake. The top and bottom are also of stone, and the entrance, in winter, being covered with ice, is exceedingly slippery. It is in no place high enough for a man to raise himself upright: nor in any part more than three feet in width.

Having groped his passage to the horizontal part of the den, the most terrifying darkness appeared in front of the dim circle of light afforded by his torch. It was silent as the house of death. None but monsters of the desert had ever before explored this solitary mansion of horror. He, cautiously proceeding onward, came to the ascent: which he slowly mounted on his hands and knees until he discovered the glaring eye-balls of the wolf, who was sitting at the extremity of the cavern. Startled at the sight of fire, she gnashed her teeth, and gave a sullen growl. As soon as he had made the necessary discovery, he kicked the rope as a signal for pulling him out. The people, at the mouth of the den, who had listened

liſtened with painful anxiety, hearing the growling of the wolf, and ſuppoſing their friend to be in the moſt imminent danger, drew him forth with ſuch celerity, that his ſhirt was ſtripped over his head, and his ſkin ſeverely lacerated. After he had adjuſted his cloaths, and loaded his gun with nine buck-ſhot, holding a torch in one hand, and the muſquet in the other, he deſcended a ſecond time. When he drew nearer than before, the wolf, aſſuming a ſtill more fierce and terrible appearance, howling, rolling her eyes, ſnapping her teeth, and dropping her head between her legs, was evidently in the attitude, and on the point of ſpringing at him. At the critical inſtant he levelled and fired at her head. Stunned with the ſhock, and ſuffocated with the ſmoak, he immediately found himſelf drawn out of the cave. But having refreſhed himſelf, and permitted the ſmoke to diſſipate, he went down the third time. Once more he came within ſight of the wolf, who appearing very paſſive, he applied the torch to her noſe; and perceiving her dead, he took hold of her ears, and then kicking the rope, (ſtill tied round his legs) the people above, with no ſmall exultation, dragged them both out together.

Another bold and almoſt preſumptuous deed, in this veteran hero, has rendered remarkable a precipice at Horſeneck, in this ſtate. The ſtory is this. 'About the middle of the winter 1778, general Putnam was on a viſit to his out-poſt at Horſeneck, he found governor Tryon advancing upon that town with a corps of fifteen hundred men—to oppoſe theſe, general Putnam had only a picket of one hundred and fifty men, and two iron field-pieces, without horſe or drag-ropes. He, however, planted his cannon on the high ground by the meeting-houſe, and retarded their approach by firing ſeveral times, until, perceiving the horſe (ſupported by the infantry) about to charge, he ordered the picket to provide for their ſafety by retiring to a ſwamp inacceſſible to horſe; and ſecured his own by plunging down the ſteep precipice at the church upon a full trot. This precipice is ſo ſteep, where he deſcended, as to have artificial ſtairs compoſed of nearly one hundred ſtone ſteps for the accommodation of foot paſſengers. There the dragoons, who were but a ſword's length from him, ſtopped ſhort. For the declivity was ſo abrupt, that they ventured not to follow: and, before they could gain the valley by going round the brow of the hill in the ordinary road, he was far enough beyond their reach.'

Tetoket mountain in Branford, latitude 41° 20′, on the north-weſt part of it, a few feet below the ſurface, has ice in large quantities in all ſeaſons of the year.

Colleges, Academies, and Schools.] In no part of the world is the education of all ranks of people more attended to than in Connecticut. Almoſt every town in the ſtate is divided into diſtricts, and each diſtrict has a public ſchool kept in it a greater or leſs part of every year. Somewhat more than one third of the monies ariſing from a tax on the polls and ratable eſtate of the inhabitants, is appropriated to the ſupport of ſchools, in the ſeveral towns, for the education of children and youth. The law directs that a grammar-ſchool ſhall be kept in every country town throughout the ſtate.

There is a grammar-ſchool at Hartford, and another at New-Haven, ſupported by a donation of governor Hopkins. This venerable and be-

nevolent gentleman, in his laſt will, dated 1657, left, in the hands of Theophilus Eaton, Eſq. and three others, a legacy of £.1324, 'as an encouragement, in theſe foreign plantations, of breeding up hopeful youths both at the grammar-ſchool and college.' In 1664, this legacy was equally divided between New-Haven and Hartford; and grammar-ſchools were erected, which have been ſupported ever ſince.

At Greenfield there is a reſpectable academy, under the care and inſtruction of the Rev. Dr. Dwight. At Plainfield is another, under the care of the Rev. Mr. Benedict. This academy has flouriſhed for ſeveral years, and furniſhed a number of ſtudents for Yale and Dartmouth colleges. At Norwich and Windham, likewiſe, are academies furniſhed with able inſtructors; each of theſe academies have ſixty or ſeventy ſcholars.

YALE COLLEGE was founded in 1700, and remained at Killingworth until 1707—then at Saybrook, until 1716, when it was removed and fixed to New-Haven. Among its principal benefactors was governor Yale, in honor of whom, in 1718, it was named YALE COLLEGE. Its firſt building was erected in 1717, being 170 feet in length, and 22 in breadth, built of wood. This was taken down in 1782. The preſent college edifice, which is of brick, was built in 1750, under the direction of the Rev. Preſident Clap, and is 100 feet long, and 40 feet wide, three ſtories high, and contains thirty-two chambers, and ſixty-four ſtudies, convenient for the reception of a hundred ſtudents. The college chapel, which is alſo of brick, was built in 1761, being fifty feet by forty, with a ſteeple 125 feet high. In this building is the public library, conſiſting of about 2500 volumes; and the philoſophical apparatus, which is at preſent incomplete. It contains, however, the principal machines neceſſary for exhibiting moſt of the experiments in the whole courſe of experimental philoſophy and aſtronomy. The ſum of £.300, collected by ſubſcriptions, is now in readineſs to be expended in the purchaſe of ſuch other inſtruments and machines, as will render the philoſophical apparatus complete.

The college muſeum, to which additions are conſtantly making, contains ſome great natural curioſities.

This literary inſtitution was incorporated by the general aſſembly of Connecticut. The firſt charter or incorporation was granted to eleven miniſters, under the denomination of truſtees, 1701. The powers of the truſtees were enlarged by the additional charter, 1723. And by that of 1745, the truſtees were incorporated by the name of 'The Preſident and Fellows of Yale college, New-Haven.' The corporation are empowered to hold eſtates, continue their ſucceſſion, make academic laws, elect and conſtitute all officers of inſtruction and government, uſual in univerſities, and confer all learned degrees. The ordinary executive government is in the hands of the preſident and tutors. The preſent officers of the college are, a preſident, who is alſo profeſſor of eccleſiaſtical hiſtory, a profeſſor of divinity, and three tutors. The number of ſtudents for ſeveral years paſt has been from 150 to 250, divided into four claſſes. The preſent number is about 140. It is worthy of remark, that as many as five-ſixths of thoſe who have received their educations at this univerſity, were natives of Connecticut.

In 1732, the Rev. George Berkely, D. D. then dean of Derry, and afterwards biſhop of Cloyne, in Ireland, made a generous donation of 880 volumes

volumes of books, and an eſtate in Rhode-Iſland, that rents yearly for 100 ounces of ſilver—which is divided into three parts, and annually appropriated to the three beſt ſcholars in the Latin and Greek claſſics. This has proved a great incentive among the ſtudents to excel in claſſical learning. The firſt donation to the college in land, conſiſting of about 600 acres, was made by major James Fitch, in 1701. The general aſſembly, in 1732, gave 1500 acres within the ſtate. Dr. Daniel Lathrop, of Norwich, added a donation of £.500 to the college funds in 1781. The courſe of education, in this univerſity, comprehends the whole circle of literature. The three learned languages are taught, together with ſo much of the ſciences as can be communicated in four years. Great attention is paid to oratory and the belles lettres.

In May and September, annually, the ſeveral claſſes are critically examined in all their claſſical ſtudies. As incentives to improvement in compoſition and oratory, quarterly exerciſes are appointed by the preſident and tutors, to be exhibited by the reſpective claſſes in rotation. A public commencement is held annually, on the ſecond Wedneſday in September, which calls together a more numerous and brilliant aſſembly, than are convened by any other anniverſary in the ſtate.

Two thouſand and eighty have received the honours of this univerſity; of whom 633 have been ordained to the work of the goſpel miniſtry.

Acceſſus. A. D.	Preſidents.	Exitus. A. D.
1701	Abraham Pierſon,	1707
1719	Timothy Cutler, S. T. D.	1722
1726	Eliſha Williams,	1739
1739	Thomas Clap,	1766
1777	Ezra Stiles, S. T. D. L. L. D.	

Mines, minerals, and foſſils.] On the bank of Connecticut river, two miles from Middleton, is a lead mine, which was wrought during the war, at the expence of the ſtate, and was productive. It is too expenſive to work in time of peace. Copper mines have been diſcovered and opened in ſeveral parts of the ſtate, but have proved unprofitable, and are much neglected. Iron mines are numerous and productive. Steel ore has been found in the mountains between Woodbury and New Milford. Talks of various kinds, white, brown and chocolate-coloured cryſtals, zink or ſpelter, a ſemi-metal, and ſeveral other foſſils and metals have been found in Connecticut.

Mode of levying taxes.] All free holders in the ſtate are required by law, to give in liſts of their polls and rateable eſtate †, to perſons appointed in the reſpective towns to receive them, on or before the 10th of Sept. annually. Theſe are valued according to law, arranged in proper order, and ſent to the general aſſembly annually in May.

† *In Connecticut, horſes, horned cattle, improved and unimproved land, houſes, ſhipping, all ſorts of riding carriages; clocks and watches, ſilver plate and money at intereſt, are rateable eſtate. All males between ſixteen and ſeventy years of age, unleſs exempted by law, are ſubjects of taxation.*

The ſum total of the liſt of the polls and rateable eſtate of the inhabitants of Connecticut, as brought into the general aſſembly at May, 1787, was as follows:

Sum total of the ſingle liſt,	—	£.1,484,901 : 6 : 4 : ¾
Aſſeſſments,	—	47,790 : 2 : 9
One quarter of the fourfolds,	—	1,176 : 9 : 4
Total,	—	£.1,533,867 : 18 : 5 : ¾

On this ſum taxes are levied, ſo much on the pound, according to the ſum propoſed to be raiſed. A tax of two-pence on the pound, would raiſe £.12,782 : 4s.

The ordinary annual expences of government before the war, amounted to near £.4000 ſterling, excluſive of that which was appropriated to the ſupport of ſchools. The expences have ſince increaſed.

Mineral ſprings.] At Stafford is a medicinal ſpring, which is ſaid to be a ſovereign remedy for ſcorbutic, cutaneous and other diſorders. At Guilford is a ſpring, whoſe water, it is ſaid, when ſeparated from the fountain, will evaporate even when put into a bottle, and tightly corked.

Conſtitution and Courts of Juſtice.] It is difficult to ſay what is the conſtitution of this ſtate. Contented with the form of government which originated from the charter of Charles II. granted in 1662, the people have not been diſpoſed to run the hazard of framing a new conſtitution ſince the declaration of independence. They have tacitly adopted their old charter as the ground of civil government, ſo far as it is applicable to an independent people.

Agreeably to this charter, the ſupreme legiſlative authority of the ſtate is veſted in a governor, deputy governor, twelve aſſiſtants or counſellors, and the repreſentatives of the people, ſtyled the *General Aſſembly*. The governor, deputy governor and aſſiſtants, are annually choſen by the freemen in the month of May. The repreſentatives (their number not to exceed two from each town) are choſen by the freemen twice a year, to attend the two annual ſeſſions, on the ſecond Thurſdays of May and October. This aſſembly has power to erect judicatories, for the trial of cauſes civil and criminal, and to ordain and eſtabliſh laws for ſettling the forms and ceremonies of government. By theſe laws the general aſſembly is divided into two branches, called the upper and lower houſes. The upper houſe is compoſed of the governor, deputy governor and aſſiſtants. The lower houſe, of the repreſentatives of the people. No law can paſs without the concurrence of both houſes. The judges of the ſuperior court hold their offices during the pleaſure of the general aſſembly. The judges of the county courts, and juſtices, are annually appointed. Sheriffs are appointed by the governor and council, without limitation of time. The governor is captain-general of the militia, the deputy-governor, lieutenant-general. All other military officers are appointed by the aſſembly, and commiſſioned by the governor.

The mode of electing the governor, deputy-governor, aſſiſtants treaſurer and ſecretary, is as follows: The freemen in the ſeveral towns meet on the Monday next after the firſt Tueſday in April, annually, and giv

give in their votes for the perſons they chooſe for the ſaid offices reſpectively, with their names written on a piece of paper, which are received and ſealed up by a conſtable in open meeting, the votes for each office by themſelves, with the name of the town and office written on the outſide. Theſe votes, thus ſealed, are ſent to the general aſſembly in May, and there counted by a committe from both houſes. All freemen are eligible to any office in government. In chooſing aſſiſtants, twenty perſons are nominated, by the vote of each freeman, at the freeman's meeting for chooſing repreſentatives in September annually. Theſe votes are ſealed up, and ſent to the general aſſembly in October, and are there counted by a committe of both houſes, and the twenty perſons who have the moſt votes ſtand in nomination; out of which number the twelve who have the greateſt number of votes, given by the freemen at their meeting in April, are, in May, declared aſſiſtants in the manner above-mentioned. The qualifications of freemen are, maturity in years—quiet and peaceable behaviour—a civil converſation, and freehold eſtate to the value of forty ſhillings per annum, or forty pounds perſonal eſtate in the liſt, certified by the ſelect men of the town; it is neceſſary, alſo, that they take the oath of fidelity to the ſtate. Their names are enrolled in the town-clerk's office, and they continue freemen for life, unleſs diſfranchiſed by ſentence of the ſuperior court, on condition of miſdemeanour.

The courts are as follow: The juſtices of the peace, of whom a number are annually appointed in each town by the general aſſembly, have authority to hear and determine civil actions, where the demand does not exceed four pounds. If the demand exceeds forty ſhillings, an appeal to the county is allowed. They have cognizance of ſmall offences, and may puniſh by fine, not exceeding forty ſhillings, or whipping, not exceeding ten ſtripes, or ſitting in the ſtocks. There are eighty county courts in the ſtate, held in the ſeveral counties by one judge and four juſtices of the quorum, who have juriſdiction of all criminal caſes, ariſing within their reſpective counties, where the puniſhment does not extend to life, limb, or baniſhment. They have original juriſdiction of all civil actions which exceed the juriſdiction of a juſtice. Either party may appeal to the ſuperior court, if the demand exceeds twenty pounds, except on bonds or notes vouched by two witneſſes.

There are ſeveral courts of probate in each county, conſiſting of one judge. The peculiar province of this court, is the probate of wills, granting adminiſtration on inteſtate eſtates, ordering diſtribution of them, and appointing guardians for minors, &c. An appeal lies from any decree of this court to the ſuperior court.

The ſuperior court conſiſts of five judges. It has authority in all criminal caſes extending to life, limb or baniſhment, and other high crimes and miſdemeanors, to grant divorces, and to hear and determine all civil actions brought by appeal from the county courts, or the court of probate, and to correct the errors of all inferior courts. This is a circuit court, and has two ſtated ſeſſions in each county annually. The ſuperior and county courts try matters of fact by a jury, or without, if the parties will agree.

There is a ſupreme court of errors, conſiſting of the deputy-governor and the twelve aſſiſtants. Their ſole buſineſs is to determine writs of error,

error, brought on judgments of the ſuperior court, where the error complained of appears on the record. They have two ſtated ſeſſions annually, viz. on the Tueſdays of the weeks preceding the ſtated ſeſſions of the general aſſembly.

The county court is a court of chancery, empowered to hear and determine caſes in equity, where the matter in demand does not exceed one hundred pounds. The ſuperior court has cognizance of all caſes where the demand exceeds that ſum. Error may be brought from the county, to the ſuperior court, and from the ſuperior court to the ſupreme court of errors, on judgment in caſes of equity as well as of law.

The general aſſembly, only, have power to grant pardons and reprieves —to grant commiſſions of bankruptcy—or protect the perſons and eſtates of unfortunate debtors.

The common law of England, ſo far as it is applicable to this country, is conſidered as the common law of this ſtate. The reports of adjudication in the courts of king's bench, common pleas and chancery, are read in the courts of this ſtate as authorities; yet the judges do not conſider them as concluſively binding, unleſs founded on ſolid reaſons which will apply in this ſtate, or ſanctioned by concurrent adjudications of their own courts †.

The feudal ſyſtem of deſcents was never adopted in this ſtate. All the real eſtate of inteſtates is divided equally among the children, males and females, except that the eldeſt ſon has a double portion. And all eſtates given in tail, muſt be given to ſome perſon then in being, or to their immediate iſſue, and ſhall become fee ſimple eſtates to the iſſue of the firſt donee in tail. The widow of an inteſtate is entitled to a third part of the perſonal eſtate for ever, and to her dower, or third part of the houſes and lands belonging to the inteſtate at the time of his death, during her life.

Practice of law.] The practice of law in this ſtate has more ſimplicity, but leſs preciſion, than in England. Aſſiſtants and judges are impowered to iſſue writs through the eſtate, and juſtices, through their reſpective counties. In theſe writs, the ſubſtance of the complaints or the declarations muſt be contained, and if neither of the parties ſhew good reaſon for delay, the cauſes are heard and determined the ſame term to which the writs are returnable. Few of the fictions of law, ſo common in the Engliſh practice, are known in this ſtate. The plaintiff always has his election to attach or ſummon the defendant. Attornies are admitted and qualified by the county courts. Previous to their admiſſion to the bar, they muſt ſtudy two years with a practiſing attorney in the ſtate, if they have had a college education, and three years if they have not; their morals muſt be good, and their characters unblemiſhed, and they muſt ſuſtain an examination by the attornies of the court of the county where they are admitted, and be by them recommended to the court. When admitted to the county court, they can practice, without other qualifications, in any court in the ſtate. They are upon an average, about thirteen attornies to each county, one hundred and four in the ſtate; a very great proportion for the real exigencies of the people. Yet from the litigious ſpirit of the citizens, the moſt

† A volume of reports of adjudications of the ſuperior court, it is expected will ſoon be publiſhed by a gentleman of abilities, in the profeſſion of law, under the inſpection of the court.

moſt of them find employment and ſupport. There is no attorney-general, but there is one attorney to the ſtate in each county.

New Inventions.] Early in the war, David Buſhnel, A. M. of Saybrook, invented a machine for *ſubmarine* navigation, altogether different from any thing hitherto deviſed by the art of man. This machine was ſo conſtructed as that it could be rowed horizontally, at any given depth, under water, and could be raiſed or depreſſed at pleaſure. To this machine, called the *American Turtle*, was attached a magazine of powder, which was intended to be faſtened under the bottom of a ſhip with a driving ſcrew, in ſuch a way as that the ſame ſtroke which diſengaged it from the machine ſhould put the internal clock work in motion. This being done, the ordinary operation of a gun-lock, at the diſtance of half an hour, or any determinate time, would cauſe the power to explode and leave the effects to the common laws of nature. The ſimplicity, yet combination diſcovered in the mechaniſm of this wonderful machine, have been acknowledged by thoſe ſkilled in phyſics, and particularly Hydraulics, to be not leſs ingenious than novel. Mr. Buſhnel invented ſeveral other curious machines for the annoyance of the Britiſh ſhipping, but from accidents, not militating againſt the philoſophical principles on which their ſucceſs depended, they but partially ſucceeded. He deſtroyed a veſſel in the charge of commodore Symmonds. One of his kegs alſo demoliſhed a veſſel near the Long-Iſland ſhore. About Chriſtmas, 1777, he committed to the Delaware river a number of kegs, deſtined to fall among the Britiſh fleet at Philadelphia; but this ſquadron of kegs, having been ſeparated and retarded by the ice, demoliſhed but a ſingle boat. This cataſtrophe, however, produced an alarm, unprecedented in its nature and degree; which has been ſo happily deſcribed by the Hon. Francis Hopkinſon, in a ſong, ſtiled 'The Battle of the Kegs†,' that the event it celebrated will not be forgotten ſo long as mankind ſhall continue to be delighted with works of humour and taſte.

Mr. Hanks, of Litchfield, has invented a method of winding up clocks by means of air aud wind only, which is new and ingenious.

Mr. Culver, of Norwick, has conſtructed (whether he was the inventor I know not) a Dock-Drudge, which is a boat for clearing docks and removing bars in rivers; a very ingenious and uſeful machine. Its good effects have already been experienced in the navigation of the river Thames, the channel of which has been conſiderably deepened. This machine will no doubt be productive of very great advantages to navigation throughout the United States.

A machine for drawing wire was invented ſometime ſince at Norwick, by the Hon. N. Niles, now in Vermont.

The Rev. Joſeph Badger, while a member in Yale College in 1785, conſtructed an ingenious *planetarium*, (without ever having ſeen one of the kind) which is depoſited in the library of that univerſity.

Hiſtory.] The preſent territory of Connecticut, at the time of the firſt arrival of the Engliſh, was poſſeſſed by the Pequot, the Mohegan, Podunk, and many other ſmaller tribes of Indians.

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† *See Col. Humphrey's life of General Putnam, p.* 123.

The Pequots were numerous and warlike. Their country extended along the ſeacoaſt from Paukatuk, to Connecticut river. About the year 1630, this powerful tribe extended their conqueſts over a conſiderable part of Connecticut, over all Long-Iſland and part of Narraganſett. SASSACUS, who was the Grand Monarch of the whole country, was king of this nation. The ſeat of his dominion was at New-London, the ancient Indian name of which was Pequot.

The Mohegans were a numerous tribe, and their territory extenſive. Their ancient claim, which was ſurveyed and ſettled by commiſſioners from Queen Ann, in 1705, comprehended all New-London county, except a narrow ſtrip of about eight miles wide, on the ſea-coaſt, almoſt the whole of the county of Windham, and a part of the counties of Tolland and Hartford. UNCUS, diſtinguiſhed for his friendſhip to the Engliſh, was the Sachem of his tribe.

The Podunks inhabited Eaſt Hartford, and the circumjacent country. The firſt Sachem of this tribe, of whom the Engliſh had any knowledge, was Tatanimoo. He was able to bring into the field more than 200 fighting men.

The firſt grant of Connecticut was made by the Plymouth council, to the Earl of Warwick, in 1630, and confirmed by his majeſty in council the ſame year. This grant comprehended "all that part of New-England which lies weſt from Narraganſett river,' 120 miles on the ſea-coaſt from thence, in latitude and breadth aforeſaid, to the ſouth ſea.' The year following, the Earl aſſigned this grant to Lord Say and Seal, Lord Brook, and nine others.

No Engliſh ſettlements were attempted in Connecticut until the year 1653, when a number of Indian traders, having purchaſed of Zequaſſon and Natawanute, two principal Sachems, a tract of land at the mouth of Little river in Windſor, built a houſe and fortified it, and ever after maintained their right of ſoil upon the river.

The ſame year, a little before the arrival of the Engliſh, a company of Dutch traders came to Hartford, and built a houſe which they called the *Hirſe of Good Hope*, and erected a ſmall fort, in which they planted two cannon. The remains of this ſettlement are ſtill viſible on the bank of Connecticut river. This was the only ſettlement of the Dutch in Connecticut in thoſe ancient times. The Dutch, and after them the Province of New-York, for a long time, claimed as far eaſt as the weſtern bank of Connecticut river. It belongs to the profeſſed hiſtorian to prove or diſprove the juſtice of this claim. Douglaſs ſays, 'the partition line between New-York and Connecticut, as eſtabliſhed December 1, 1664, runs from the mouth of Memoroncok river, (a little weſt from Byram river,) N. N. W. and was the *ancient eaſterly limits of New-York*, until Nov. 23, 1683, when the line was run nearly the ſame as it is now ſettled *.' If Douglaſs is right, the New-york claim could not have been well founded.

In 1634, Lord Say and Seal, &c. ſent over a ſmall number of men, who built a fort at Saybrook, and held a treaty with the Pequot Indians, who, in a formal manner, gave to the Engliſh their right to Connecticut river and the adjacent country.

In

* *Douglaſs, Sum.* Vol. II. p. 161.

In 1635, the Plymouth council granted to the Duke of Hamilton, all lands between Narraganſett and Connecticut rivers, and back into the country as far as Maſſachuſetts ſouth line. This covered a part of the Earl of Warwick's patent, and occaſioned ſome diſputes in the colony. There were ſeveral attempts to revive the Hamilton claim, but were never proſecuted.

In Oct. of this year, about ſixty perſons from Newton, Dorcheſter, and Waterton, in Maſſachuſetts, came and ſettled in Hartford, Wetherſfield, and Windſor, in Connecticut; and the June following the famous Mr. Hooker, and his company, came and ſettled at Hartford, and was a friend and father to the colony to the day of his death.

The firſt court held in Connecticut was at Hartford, April 26th, 1636.

The year 1637 was diſtinguiſhed by the war with the Pequots. This warlike nation had, for ſome time, been troubleſome neighbours. They ſolicited the Narraganſetts to join them in extirpating the Engliſh. They had ſurprized and killed ſeveral of the Engliſh upon Connecticut river. Theſe threatening appearances and actual hoſtilities, induced the three colonies of Maſſachuſetts, Plymouth, and Connecticut, to combine their forces to carry the war into their country, and to attempt the entire deſtruction of the whole tribe. Myantonomo, the Narraganſett Sachem, and Uncas, Sachem of the Mohegans, ſent to the Engliſh and offered their ſervice to join with them againſt the Pequots. Forces were accordingly raiſed in all the colonies, but thoſe of Connecticut, on account of their vicinity to the enemy, were firſt in action. Captain Maſon, with 80 Engliſh and 100 Indians from Connecticut river, proceeded by water to the Narraganſett's country, where 200 of that tribe joined him. On the 24th of May, they began their march for Saſſacus' fort on Pequot, now Thames, river. They afterwards determined firſt to aſſault Myſtic fort, which was ſituated between them and Pequot river. On the morning of the 26th of May the attack was made. The Indians, after a midnight revel, were buried in a deep ſleep. At the moment of their approach, the centinel happened to be gone into a wigwam to light his pipe. The barking of a dog gave the alarm. The Indians awoke ſeized their arrows, and began their hideous yell. They were joined in their tremendous noiſe by the Indians in the Engliſh army, who were in the rear, and afraid to approach. The battle was warm and bloody, and the victory compleat. The fort was taken—about 70 wigwams were burnt—50 or 60 of the Indians were killed—many were wounded and taken, and the reſt eſcaped. Saſſacus and his warriors at Pequot, ſtruck with terror at the news of this defeat, demoliſhed their principal fort, burnt their wigwams, and fled to the weſtward. Capt. Stoughton, with 160 men from Maſſachuſetts, had by this time arrived at Saybrook. He, with his forces, joined Captain Maſon, and purſued the Indians, and overtook and ſurrounded them in a great ſwamp near Fairfield. A Sachem and ninety-nine women and children came out and delivered themſelves up to their purſuers. Terms of peace were offered to the reſt. But after a ſhort parley they determined, that 'as they had lived they would die together.' There were about eighty who made this reſolution. Part of theſe eſcaped by means of the darkneſs of the night. The reſt were either killed or taken. In this action the Indians had guns, which

which is the first account of their having used them. Sassacus fled to the Mohawks, by whom it is reported he was murdered; but it is more probable that he and his company incorporated with them. Many of the Indian captives were *unjustifiably* sent to Bermudas and sold for slaves The Pequot tribe was wholly extinguished. This successful expedition struck the Indians that remained with such terror, as restrained them from open hostilities for near forty years after.

The English thus obtained the country east of the Dutch settlements, by right of conquest. The pursuit of the Indians led to an acquaintance with the lands on the sea-coast, from Saybrook to Fairfield. It was reported to be a very fine country. This favourable report induced Messrs. Eaton and Hopkins, two very respectable London merchants, and Mr. Davenport, a man of distinguished piety and abilities, with their company, who arrived this year (1637) from London, to think of this part of the country as the place of their settlement. Their friends in Massachusetts, sorry to part with so valuable a company, dissuaded them from their purpose. Influenced, however, by the promising prospects which the country afforded, and flattering themselves that the should be out of the jurisdiction of a general governor, with which the country was from time to time threatened, they determined to proceed. Accordingly, in March, 1638, with the consent of their friends on Connecticut river, they settled at New-Haven, and laid the foundation of a flourishing colony, of which Quinnipiak, now New-Haven, was the chief town. The first public worship, in this new plantation, was attended on Lord's day, April 18th, 1638, under a large spreading oak. The Rev. Mr. Davenport preached from Matt. iii. 1. on the temptations of the wilderness. Both colonies, by voluntary compact, formed themselves into distinct commonwealths, and remained so until their union in 1665.

In 1639, the three towns on Connecticut river, already mentioned, finding themselves without the limits of any jurisdiction, formed themselves into a body politic, and agreed upon articles of civil government. These articles were the foundation of Connecticut charter, which was granted in 1662. The substance of the articles, so far as they respect the holding of assemblies, the time and manner of electing magistrates and other civil officers, (except that in the old confederation no person was to be chosen governor more than once in two years) and the extent of legislative powers was transferred into, and established in said charter.

The first church was gathered in New-Haven this year, and consisted of seven members. These were chosen by the settlers after Mr. Davenport had preached from the words of Solomon, 'Wisdom hath builded her house, she hath hewed out her seven pillars.' These men were indeed the pillars of the church, to whom the rest were added as they became qualified. They were, also, the court to try all civil actions.

The first settlers in New-Haven had all things common; all purchases were made in the name and for the use of the whole plantation, and the lands were apportioned out to each family, according to their number and original stock.

At their first election, in October, 1639, Mr. Theophilus Eaton was chosen governor for the first year. Their elections, by agreement, were to be annual; and the Word of God their only rule in conducting the affairs of government in the plantation.

In

In 1643, the articles of confederation between the four New-England colonies, mentioned p. 158, were unanimously adopted by the colonies of New-Haven and Connecticut.

The English settlement on Delaware, which was under the jurisdiction of New-Haven, was surprized by the Swedes, and the people put in irons, under a false pretence that they were entering into a conspiracy with the Indians to extirpate the Swedes.

The general court of New-Haven, this year, established it as a fundamental article not to be disputed, That none be admitted as free burgesses but church members, and that none but such should vote at elections. They also ordained, That each town choose from among themselves judges (church members) to be a court, to have cognizance of all civil actions not exceeding twenty pounds; and of criminal causes, where the punishment was, sitting in the stocks, whipping, and fining not exceeding five pounds. There was liberty of appeal from this to the court of magistrates. The court of magistrates consisted of all the magistrates throughout the colony, who were to meet twice a year, at New-Haven, for the trial of all capital causes. Six made a quorum.

The general court was to consist of the governor, deputy-governor, magistrates, and two representatives from each town. The annual election of officers of government was at this time established, and has ever since continued.

The unsettled state of the colony had hitherto prevented their establishing a code of laws. To supply this defect, the general court ordered, 'That the judicial laws of God as they were delivered to Moses, and as they are a fence to the moral, being neither typical nor ceremonial, nor having any reference to Canaan, shall be accounted of moral equity, and generally bind all offenders, and be a rule to all the courts in this jurisdiction in their proceedings against offenders, until they be branched out into particulars hereafter.'

About this time a war broke out between the Mohegan and Narraganset Indians. A personal quarrel between Myantonomo, sachem of the Narragansetts, and Uncas, sachem of the Mohegans, was the foundation of the war. Myantonomo raised an army of 900 warriors, and marched towards the Mohegan country. Uncas by his spies received timely notice of their approach. His seat of residence was in some part of Norwich. He quickly collected 600 of his bravest warriors, and told them, 'The Narraganseits must not come into our town, we must meet them.' They accordingly marched about three miles to a large plain, where the two armies met, and halted within bow shot of each other. A parley was proposed by Uncas, and agreed to by Myantonomo. The sachems met, and Uncas addressed his enemy as follows. 'You have a great many brave men—so have I—You and I have quarrelled, but these warriors, what have they done? Shall they die to avenge a private quarrell between us? No. Come like a brave man, as you pretend to be, and let us fight. If you kill me, my men shall be yours; if I kill you, your men shall be mine.' Myantonomo replied, 'My men came to fight, and they shall fight.' Uncas, like an experienced warrior, aware of the result of the conference from the superior force of his enemy, had previously signified to his men, that if Myantonomo refused to fight him in single combat, he would

immediately

immediately fall, which was to be the ſignal for them to begin the attack. As ſoon therefore as Myantonomo had finiſhed his laconic ſpeech, Uncas dropped—his men inſtantly obeyed the ſignal, and poured in a ſhower of arrows upon the unſuſpecting Narraganſetts, and ruſhing on with their horrid yells and ſavage fierceneſs, put them to flight. Many were killed on the ſpot—the reſt were cloſely purſued, and ſome were precipitately driven down craggy precipices, and daſhed in pieces. At a place called, from this event, Sachem's Plain, Uncas overtook and ſeized Myantonomo by the ſhoulder. They ſat down together; and Uncas with a hoop called in his men, and the battle ceaſed. Doubtful what to do with the royal priſoner, Uncas and his warriors, in council, determined to carry him to the governor and council at Hartford, and be adviſed by them. Thither he was accordingly conducted. The governor having adviſed with his council, told Uncas, That the Engliſh were not then at war with the Narraganſetts, and of courſe that it was not proper for them to intermeddle in the matter. Uncas was left to do with him as he pleaſed. Myantonomo was conducted back to the plain where he was taken, and put to death by Uncas himſelf. The tragic ſcene did not end with his death. Uncas, after the manner of the Indians, with his tomahawk, cut off a large piece of fleſh from the ſhoulder of his ſlaughtered enemy, broiled and ate it, ſaying, with an air of ſavage triumph, 'It is the ſweeteſt meat I ever ate—It makes me have a ſtout heart.' His body was afterwards buried, and a pillar erected over it, the remains of which are viſible to this day.

Some hiſtorians have inſinuated, that the governor and council ſecretly adviſed Uncas to put Myantonomo to death—and others, more bold, have declared that they '*ordered* him (Myantonomo) to be carried out of their juriſdiction, and to be ſlain;' but that they 'kindly added that he ſhould not be tortured; and ſent ſome perſons to ſee execution done, who had the ſatisfaction to ſee the captive king murdered in cool blood*.' I know of no foundation for this unfavourable repreſentation of the affair.

Myantonomo was one of the moſt potent Indian princes in New-England. Seven years before this he had aſſiſted the Engliſh in their wars with the Pequots.

The Narraganſetts were greatly enraged at the death of their prince, and reſolved to take vengeance on the Mohegans. The united colonies interpoſed to prevent a war between them, but in vain. The Narraganſetts reſolutely declared, they would continue the war until they had Uncas' head. But as Uncas had ever been a friend to the Engliſh, they joined him againſt his enemies, and were victorious. Such, however, was the enmity of the Narraganſetts to the Engliſh, that they afterwards ſent ſome of their men to Uncas, with large preſents, to induce him to join with them in a war with the colonies. Uncas replied, 'Go tell your king that I will go to Norwich, and adviſe with Major John Maſon and Mr Fitch; if they tell me to join him and fight againſt the Engliſh, I will join him.' In the war that happened ſoon after, Uncas aſſiſted the Engliſh, and the Narraganſetts were ſubdued, and never after were formidable.

* Hiſt. of Providence, &c. publiſhed in the Providence Gazette, 1795, No. 128.

In

In conſideration of the ſucceſs and increaſe of the New England colonies, and that they had been of *no charge* to the nation, and in proſpect of their being in future very ſerviceable to it, the Engliſh parliament, March 10th, 1643, granted them an exemption from all cuſtoms, ſubſidies and other duties, until further order.

To write a connected, progreſſive hiſtory of any of the ſtates, is not within the limits of my deſign. This, as I have before obſerved, is left to the profeſſed hiſtorian *. Some of the moſt remarkable and intereſting events, related in a detached and ſummary manner, is all that muſt be expected.

In 1644, the Connecticut adventurers purchaſed of Mr Fenwick, agent for Lord Say and Seal, and Lord Brook, their right to the colony of Connecticut, for £.1600.

The hiſtory of Connecticut is marked with traces of the ſame ſpirit, which has been mentioned as characteriſtic of the Maſſachuſetts, in different ſtages of their hiſtory. Indeed, as Maſſachuſetts was the ſtock whence Connecticut proceeded, this is to be expected.

The colony of Connecticut expreſſed their diſapprobation of the uſe of tobacco, in an act of their general aſſembly at Hartford, in 1647, wherein it was ordered, 'That no perſon under the age of twenty years, nor any other that hath already accuſtomed himſelf to the uſe thereof, ſhall take any tobacco, until he ſhall have brought a certificate, from under the hand of ſome who are approved for knowledge and ſkill in phyſic, that it is uſeful for him; and alſo that he hath received a licence from the court for the ſame. All others who had addicted themſelves to the uſe of tobacco were, by the ſame court, prohibited taking it in any company, or at their labours, or on their travels, unleſs they were ten miles at leaſt *from any houſe* †, (I ſuppoſe) or more than once a day, though not in company, on pain of a fine of *ſix-pence* for each time; to be proved by one ſubſtantial evidence. The conſtable in each town to make preſentment of ſuch tranſgreſſions to the particular court, and, upon conviction, the fine to be paid without gainſaying.'

Nor were the Connecticut ſettlers behind their brethren in Maſſachuſetts in regard to their ſeverity againſt the Quakers; and they have the ſame apology ‡. The general court of New-Haven, 1658, paſſed a ſevere law againſt the Quakers. They introduced their law with this preamble.

'Whereas there is a curſed ſect of hereticks lately ſprung up in the world, commonly called Quakers, who take upon them that they are immediately ſent from God, and infallibly aſſiſted by the Spirit, who yet ſpeak and write blaſphemous opinions, deſpiſe government, and the order of God in church and commonwealth, ſpeaking evil of dignities, &c.

* *The Rev. Mr.* Benjamin Trumbull, *of North-Haven, has for ſeveral years, with indefatigable induſtry, been making collections for a hiſtory of Connecticut. His abilities as a writer, and his accuracy as a hiſtorian, the public already know. It is hoped the public will ſhortly be favoured with his hiſtory. Through his indulgence in permitting me to ſelect from his manuſcripts, I am enabled to publiſh moſt of the above facts.*

† *There is a defect in the copy*

‡ See Hiſt. of Maſſachuſetts, p. 188.

'Ordered—That whoſoever ſhall bring, or cauſe to be brought, any known Quaker or Quakers, or other blaſphemous hereticks, ſhall forfeit the ſum of £.50.' Alſo,

'If a Quaker come into this juriſdiction on civil buſineſs, the time of his ſtay ſhall be limited by the civil authority, and he ſhall not uſe any means to corrupt or ſeduce others. On his firſt arrival, he ſhall appear before the magiſtrate, and from him have licenſe to paſs on his buſineſs. And (for the better prevention of hurt to the people) have one or more to attend upon them at their charge, &c. The penalties in caſe of diſobedience were whipping, impriſonment, labour, and deprivation of all converſe with any perſon.

'For the ſecond offence, the perſon was to be branded in the hand with the letter H—to ſuffer impriſonment—and be put to labour. For the third, to be branded in the other hand, impriſoned, &c. as before. For the fourth, the offender was to have his tongue bored through with a red hot iron—impriſoned—and kept to labour, until ſent away at their own charge.

'Any perſon who ſhould attempt to defend the ſentiments of the Quakers, was, for the third offence, to be ſentenced to baniſhment.'

Had the pious framers of theſe laws paid a due attention to the excellent advice of that ſagacious doctor of the law, Gamaliel, they would, perhaps, have been prevented from the adoption of ſuch ſevere and unjuſtifiable meaſures. This wiſe man, when his countrymen were about to be outrageous in perſecuting the apoſtles, addreſſed them in the following words, which merit to be engraved in letters of gold: 'REFRAIN FROM THESE MEN, AND LET THEM ALONE: FOR IF THIS COUNSEL OR THIS WORK BE OF MEN, IT WILL COME TO NOUGHT: BUT IF IT BE OF GOD, YE CANNOT OVERTHROW IT; LEST HAPLY YE BE FOUND EVEN TO FIGHT AGAINST GOD *.' This divine maxim was but little attended to in times of perſecution. Our anceſtors ſeem to have left it to poſterity to make the important diſcovery, that perſecution is the direct method to multiply its objects.

But theſe people, who have been ſo much cenſured and ridiculed, had, perhaps, as many virtues as their poſterity; and had they an advocate to defend their cauſe, he no doubt might find as broad a field for ridicule, and as juſt a foundation for cenſure, in the ſurvey of modern manners, as has been afforded in any period ſince the ſettlement of America. It would be wiſe then in the moderns, who ſtand elevated upon the ſhoulders of their anceſtors, with the book of *their* experience ſpread before them, to improve their virtues, and veil their faults.

The colonies of Connecticut and New-Haven, from their firſt ſettlement, increaſed rapidly; tracts of land were purchaſed of the Indians, and new towns ſettled from Stamford to Stonington, and far back into the country, when, in 1661, Major John Maſon, as agent for the colony, bought of the natives all lands which had not before been purchaſed by particular towns, and made a public ſurrender of them to the colony, in the preſence of the general aſſembly. Having done theſe things, the coloniſts petitioned king Charles II. for a charter, and their petition was granted. His ma-

* Acts, Chap. v.

jeſty

jeſty on the 23d of April 1662, iſſued his letters patent under the great ſeal, ordaining that the colony of Connecticut, ſhould forever hereafter be one body corporate and politic, in fact and in name, confirming to them their ancient grant and purchaſe, and fixing their boundaries as follows, (viz) 'All that part of his Majeſty's dominions in New England, in America, bounden eaſt by Narraganſett river, commonly called Narraganſett bay, where the river falleth into the ſea; and on the north by the line of Maſſachuſetts plantation, and on the ſouth by the ſea, and in longitude as the line of the Maſſachuſetts colony, running from eaſt to weſt, that is to ſay, from the ſaid Narraganſett bay on the eaſt, to the ſouth ſea on the weſt part, with the iſlands thereunto belonging.' This charter has ever ſince remained the baſis of the government of Connecticut.

Such was the ignorance of the Europeans, reſpecting the geography of America, when they firſt aſſumed the right of giving away lands which the God of nature had long before given to the Indians, that their patents extended they knew not where, many of them were of doubtful conſtruction, and very often covered each other in part, and have produced innumerable diſputes and miſchiefs in the colonies, ſome of which are not ſettled to this day. It is not my buſineſs to touch upon theſe diſputes. I have only to obſerve, that Connecticut conſtrued her charter literally, and paſſing over New York, which was then in poſſeſſion of the ſubjects of a Chriſtian Prince, claimed, in latitude and breadth mentioned therein, to the ſouth ſea. Accordingly purchaſes were made of the Indians on the Delaware river, weſt of the weſtern bounds of New York, and within the ſuppoſed limits of Connecticut charter, and ſettlements were made thereon by people from, and under the juriſdiction of, Connecticut. The charter of Pennſylvania, granted to William Penn, in 1681, covered theſe ſettlements. This laid the foundation for a diſpute, which, for a long time, was maintained with warmth on both ſides. The matter was at laſt ſubmitted to gentlemen choſen for the purpoſe, who decided the diſpute in favor of Pennſylvania. Many, however, ſtill aſſert the juſtice of the Connecticut claim.

The ſtate of Connecticut, has lately ceded to Congreſs all their lands weſt of Pennſylvania, except a reſerve of twenty miles ſquare. This ceſſion, Congreſs has accepted, and thereby indubitably eſtabliſhed the right of Connecticut to the *reſerve*.

But to return, The colony of New Haven, though unconnected with the colony of Connecticut, was comprehended with the limits of their charter, and, as they concluded, within their juriſdiction. But New Haven remonſtrated againſt their claim, and refuſed to unite with them until they ſhould hear from England. It was not until the year 1665, when it was believed that the king's commiſſioners had a deſign upon the New England charters, that theſe two colonies formed a union, which has ever ſince amicably ſubſiſted between them.

In 1672, the laws of the colony were reviſed, and the general court ordered them to be printed; and alſo that 'every family ſhould buy one of the law books—ſuch as pay in ſilver, to have a book for twelve pence. ſuch as pay in wheat, to pay a peck and a half a book; and ſuch as pay in peaſe, to pay two ſhillings a book, the peaſe at three ſhillings the buſhel.' Perhaps it is owing to this early and univerſal ſpread of law books,

books, that the people of Connecticut are, to this day, so fond of the law.

In 1750, the laws of Connecticut were again revised, and published in a small folio volume, of 258 pages. Dr. Douglass observes, that they were the most natural equitable, plain and concise *code* of laws, for plantations, hitherto extant.'

There has been a revision of them since the peace, in which they were greatly and very judiciously simplified.

There years 1675 and 1676, were distinguished by the wars with Philip and his Indians, and with the Narraganfetts, by which the Colony was thrown into great distress and confusion. The inroads of the enraged savages were marked with cruel murders, and with fire and devastation.

In 1684, the charter of Massachusetts bay and Plymouth were taken away, in consequence of *Quo warrantos* which had been issued against them. The charter of Connecticut would have shared the same fate, had it not been for ——— Wandsworth, Esq. who, having very artfully procured it when it was on the point of being delivered up, buried it under an oak tree in Hartford, where it remained till all danger was over, and then was dug up and reassumed.

Connecticut has ever made rapid advances in population. There have been more emigrations from this, than from any of the other States, and yet it is at present full of inhabitants. This increase, under the divine benediction, may be ascribed to several causes. The bulk of the inhabitants are industrious sagacious husbandmen. Their farms furnish them with all the necessaries, most of the conveniencies, and but few of the luxuries of life. They of course must be generally temparate, and if they choose, can subsist with as much independance as is consistent with happiness. The subsistence of the farmer is substantial, and does not depend on incidental circumstances, like that of most other professions. There is no necessity of serving an apprenticeship to the business, nor of a large stock of money to commence it to advantage. Farmers, who deal much in barter, have less need of money than any other class of people. The ease with which a comfortable subsistence is obtained, induces the husbandman to marry young. The cultivation of his farm makes him strong and healthful. He toils cheerfully through the day—eats the fruit of his own labour with a gladsome heart—at night devoutly thanks his bounteous GOD for his daily blessings—retires to rest, and his sleep is sweet. Such circumstances as these have greatly contributed to the amazing increase of inhabitants in this state.

Besides, the people live under a free government, and have no fear of a tyrant. There are no overgrown estates, with rich and ambitious landlords, to have an undue and pernicious influence in the election of civil officers. Property is equally enough divided, and must continue to be so, as long as estates descend as they now do. No person is prohibited from voting, or from being elected into office, on account of his poverty. He who has the most merit, not he who has the most money, is generally chosen into public office. As instances of this, it is to be observed, that many of the citizens of Connecticut, from the humble walks of life, have arisen to the first offices in the state, and filled them with dignity and reputation.

tion. That baſe buſineſs of electioneering, which is ſo directly calculated to introduce wicked and deſigning men into office, is yet but little known in Connecticut. A man who wiſhes to be choſen into office, acts wiſely, for that end, when he keeps his deſires to himſelf.

A thirſt for learning prevails among all ranks of people in the ſtate. More of the young men in Connecticut, in proportion to their numbers, receive a public education, than in any of the ſtates. Dr. Franklin and other literary characters have honoured this ſtate by ſaying, that it is the *Athens of America*.

Some have believed, and with reaſon, that the fondneſs for academic and collegiate education is too great—that it induces too many to leave the plough. If men of liberal education would return to the farm, and uſe their knowledge in improving agriculture, and encouraging manufactures, there could not be too many men of learning in the ſtate; but this is too ſeldom the caſe.

Connecticut had but few citizens who did not join in oppoſing the oppreſſive meaſures of Great-Britain, and was active and influential, both in the field and in the cabinet, in bringing about the revolution. Her ſoldiers were applauded by the commander in chief for their bravery and fidelity.

What has been ſaid in favour of Connecticut, though true when generally applied, needs to be qualified with ſome exceptions. Dr. Douglaſs ſpoke the truth when he ſaid, that 'ſome of the meaner ſort are villains.' Too many are idle and diſſipated, and much time is unprofitably and wickedly ſpent in law-ſuits and petty arbitrations. The public ſchools, in ſome parts of the ſtate, have been too much neglected, and in procuring inſtructors, too little attention is paid to their moral and literary qualifications.

The revolution, which ſo eſſentially affected the governments of moſt of the colonies, produced no very perceptible alteration in the government of Connecticut. While under the juriſdiction of Great-Britain, they elected their own governors, and all ſubordinate civil officers, and made their own laws, in the ſame manner, and with as little controul as they now do. Connecticut has ever been a republic, and perhaps as perfect and as happy a republic as has ever exiſted. While other ſtates, more monarchical in their government and manners, have been under a neceſſity of undertaking the difficult taſk of altering their old, or forming new, conſtitutions, and of changing their monarchical for republican manners, Connecticut has uninterruptedly proceeded in her old track, both as to government and manners; and, by theſe means, has avoided thoſe convulſions which have rent other ſtates into violent parties.

At the anniverſary election of the governor and other public officers, which is held yearly at Hartford on the ſecond Wedneſday in May, a ſermon is preached, which is publiſhed at the expence of the ſtate *. On theſe occaſions a vaſt concourſe of reſpectable citizens, particularly of the clergy, are

* *Would it not anſwer many valuable purpoſes, if the gentlemen, who are annually appointed to preach the election ſermons, would furniſh a ſketch of the hiſtory of the ſtate for the current year, to be publiſhed at the cloſe of their ſermons?*

are collected from every part of the ſtate; and while they add dignity and ſolemnity to the important and joyful tranſactions of the day, ſerve to exterminate party ſpirit, and to harmonize the civil and religious intereſts of the ſtate.

Connecticut has been highly diſtinguiſhed in having a ſucceſſion of governors, eminent both for their religious and political accompliſhments. With the following liſt of their venerable names, I ſhall conclude my account of Connecticut.

Colony of Connecticut.				Colony of New Haven.			
Acceſſus.	*Names.*	*Exitus.*		*Acceſſus.*	*Names.*	*Exitus.*	
1639	John Haynes,	1640	Eſquires.	1639	Theop. Eaton,	1658 died*	Eſqrs.
1640	Edward Hopkins,	1641		1659	Fra. Newman,	1661 died	
1641	John Haynes,	1642		1662	William Leet,	1665	
1642	George Wyllis,	1643		This year (1665) the colonies of New-Haven and Connecticut united, and Governor Winthrop was governor of both, and Governor Leet deputy-governor.			
1643	John Haynes,	1644					
1644	Edward Hopkins,	1645					
1645	John Haynes,	1646					
1646	Edward Hopkins,	1647					
1647	John Haynes,	1648	Eſquires.				
1648	Edward Hopkins,	1649					
1649	John Haynes,	1650					
1650	Edward Hopkins,	1651					
1651	John Haynes,	1652					
1652	Edward Hopkins,	1653	died.				
1653	John Haynes,	1654					
1654	Edward Hopkins,	1655					
1655	Thomas Wells,	1656					
1656	John Webſter,	1657					

Such a ſketch, which might eaſily be made, would render election ſermons much more valuable. They would then be a very authentic depoſitum *for future hiſtorians of the ſtate—they would be more generally and more eagerly purchaſed and read—they would ſerve to diſſeminate important knowledge, that of the internal affairs of the ſtate, which every citizen ought to know, and might, if judiciouſly executed, operate as a check upon party ſpirit, and upon ambitious and deſigning men.*

* *Governor* Eaton *was buried in New-Haven. The following inſcription is upon his tomb-ſtone.*

'EATON *ſo meek, ſo fam'd, ſo wiſe, ſo juſt.*
'*The* Phœnix *of our world, here hides his duſt.*
'*This name forget, New-England never muſt.*

† 'T' *attend you, Sir, under theſe framed ſtones,*
'*Are come your honour'd* Son ‡, *and daughter* Jones,
'*On each hand to repoſe their weary bones.*'

† *Theſe lines ſeem to have been added afterwards.*
‡ *The governor's ſon-in-law.*

1657 John

1657	John Winthrop,		1658
1658	Thomas Wells,		1659
1659	John Winthrop,		1676
1676	William Leet,		1680
1680	Robert Treat,		1696
1696	John Winthrop,		1707
1707	Gurdon Saltonſtall,	Eſquires.	1724
1724	John Talcott,		1741
1741	Jonathan Law,		1751
1751	Roger Woolcot,		1754
1754	Thomas Fitch,		1766
1766	William Pitkin,		1770
1770	Jonathan Trumbull,		1784
1784	Matthew Griſwold,		1785
1785	Sam. Huntington,		

NEW YORK.

SITUATION and EXTENT.

	miles.		
Length	350	Between	40° 40′ and 45° North Latitude.
Breadth	300		5° W. and 1° 30′ Eaſt Longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED ſouth-eaſtwardly, by the Atlantic ocean; eaſt, by Connecticut, Maſſachuſetts and Vermont; north, by the 45th degree of latitude, which divides it from Canada; north-weſtwardly, by the river Iroquois, or St. Lawrence, and the Lakes Ontario and Erie; ſouth-weſt and ſouth, by Pennſylvania and New-Jerſey. The whole ſtate contains about 44,000 ſquare miles, equal to 28,160,000 acres.

Rivers.] Hudſon's river is one of the largeſt and fineſt rivers in the United States. It riſes in the mountainous country between the Lakes Ontario and Champlain. Its length is about 250 miles In its courſe ſouthward, it approaches within a few miles of the Mohawks river, at Saucondauga. Thence it runs north and north-eaſt towards Lake George, and is but ſix or eight miles from it. The courſe of the river thence to New-York, where it empties into York bay, is very uniformly ſouth, 12 or 15° weſt. From Albany to Lake George is ſixty-five miles. This diſtance, the river is navigable only for batteaux, and has two portages, occaſioned by falls, of half a mile each. It was one of theſe falls that General Putnam ſo miraculouſly deſcended, in the year 1758, to the aſtoniſhment of the Indians who beheld him *.

* See Col. Humphrey's life of Gen. Putnam, p. 60.

The banks of Hudſon's river, eſpecially on the weſtern ſide, are chiefly rocky cliffs. The paſſage through the Highlands, which is ſixteen miles, affords a wild, romantic ſcene. In this narrow paſs, on each ſide of which the mountains tower to a great height, the wind, if there be any, is collected and compreſſed, and blows continually as through bellows. Veſſels, in paſſing through it, are often obliged to lower their ſails. The bed of this river, which is deep and ſmooth to an aſtoniſhing diſtance, through a hilly, rocky country, and even through ridges of ſome of the higheſt mountains in the United States, muſt undoubtedly have been produced by ſome mighty convulſion in nature. The tide flows a few miles above Albany, which is 160 miles from New-York. It is navigable for ſloops of 80 tons to Albany, and for ſhips to Hudſon. About 60 miles above New-York the water becomes freſh. The river is ſtored with a variety of fiſh, which renders a ſummer paſſage to Albany delightful and amuſing to thoſe who are fond of angling.

The advantages of this river for carrying on the fur-trade with Canada, by means of the lakes, have already been mentioned. Its convenience for internal commerce are ſingularly great. The produce of the remoteſt farms is eaſily and ſpeedily conveyed to a certain and profitable market, and at the loweſt expence. In this reſpect, New-York has greatly the advantage of Philadelphia. A great proportion of the produce of Pennſylvania is carried to market in waggons, over a great extent of country, ſome of which is rough; hence it is that Philadelphia is crouded with waggons, carts, horſes and their drivers, to do the ſame buſineſs that is done in New-York, where all the produce of the country is brought to market by water, with much leſs ſhew and parade. But Pennſylvania has other advantages, which will be mentioned in their proper place, to compenſate for this natural defect. The increaſing population of the fertile lands upon the northern branches of the Hudſon, muſt annually increaſe the amazing wealth that is conveyed by its waters to New-York.

The river St. Lawrence divides this ſtate from Canada. It riſes in Lake Ontario, runs north-eaſtward—emboſoms Montreal, which ſtands upon an iſland—paſſes by Quebec, and empties, by a broad mouth, into the bay of St. Lawrence. Among a variety of fiſh in this river are ſalmon. They are found as far up as the falls of Niagara, which they cannot paſs.

Onondago river riſes in the lake of the ſame name, runs weſtwardly into Lake Ontario at Oſwego. It is boatable from its mouth to the head of the lake; (except a fall which occaſions a portage of twenty yards) thence batteaux go up Wood creek, almoſt to Fort Stanwix; whence there is a portage of a mile to Mohawks river. Toward the head waters of this river ſalmon are caught in great quantities.

Mohawks river riſes to the northward of Fort Stanwix, and runs ſouthwardly to the fort, then eaſtward 110 miles, into the Hudſon. The produce that is conveyed down this river is landed at Skenectady, and is thence carried by land ſixteen miles, over a barren, ſhrub plain, to Albany. Except a portage of about a mile, occaſioned by the little falls, ſixty miles above Skenectady, the river is paſſable for boats, from Skenectady, nearly or quite to its ſource. The Cohoez, in this river, are a great curioſity. They are about two miles from its entrance, into the Hudſon.

Hudſon. The river is about 100 yards wide—the rock over which it pours as over a mill-dam, extends almoſt in a line from one ſide of the river to the other, and is about thirty feet perpendicular height. Including the deſcent above, the fall is as much as ſixty or ſeventy feet. The rocks below, in ſome places, are worn many feet deep by the conſtant friction of the water. The view of this tremendous cataract is diminiſhed by the height of the banks on each ſide of the river. About a mile below the falls, the river branches, and forms a large iſland; but the two mouths may be ſeen at the ſame time from the oppoſite bank of the Hudſon. The branches are fordable at low water, but are dangerous.

Delaware river riſes in Lake Utſtayantho, and takes its courſe ſouthweſt, until it croſſes into Pennſylvania in latitude 42°. Thence ſouthwardly, dividing New-York from Pennſylvania, until it ſtrikes the northweſt corner of New-Jerſey, in latitude 41° 24′; and then paſſes off to ſea, through Delaware bay, having New-Jerſey on the eaſt ſide, and Pennſylvania and Delaware on the weſt.

Suſquehannah river has its ſource in lake Otſego, from which it takes a ſouth-weſt courſe. It croſſes the line, which divides New-York and Pennſylvania, three times, the laſt time near Tyoga point, where it receives Tyoga river. Batteaux paſs to its ſource—thence to Mohawks river is but twenty miles.

Tyoga river riſes in the Allegany mountains, in about latitude 42°, runs eaſtwardly, and empties in the Suſquehannah at Tyoga point, in latitude 41° 57′. It is boatable about fifty miles.

Seneca river riſes in the Seneca country, and runs eaſtwardly, and in its paſſage receives the waters of the Seneca and Cayago lakes, (which lie north and ſouth, ten or twelve miles apart; each is between thirty and forty miles in length, and about a mile in breadth) and empties into the Onondago river, a little above the falls. It is boatable from the lakes downwards,

Cheneſſe river riſes near the ſource of the Tyoga, and runs northwardly by the Cheneſſe caſtle and flats, and empties into Lake Ontario eighty miles eaſt of Niagara fort.

The north-eaſt branch of the Allegany river, heads in the Allegany mountains, near the ſource of the Tyoga, and runs directly weſt until it is joined by a larger branch from the ſouthward, which riſes near the weſt branch of the Suſquehannah. Their junction is on the line between Pennſylvania and New-York. From this junction, the river purſues a north-weſt coaſt, leaving a ſegment of the river of about fifty miles in length, in the ſtate of New-York, thence it proceeds in a circuitous ſouth-weſt direction, until it croſſes into Pennſylvania. From thence to its entrance into the Miſſiſſippi, it has already been deſcribed, (Page 45.)

There are few fiſh in the rivers, but in the brooks are plenty of trout; and in the lakes, yellow perch, ſun-fiſh, ſalmon trout, cat-fiſh, and a variety of others.

From this account of the rivers, it is eaſy to conceive of the excellent advantages for conveying produce to market from every part of the ſtate.

The ſettlements already made in this ſtate, are chiefly upon two narrow oblongs, extending from the city of New-York, eaſt and north.

The

The one eaſt, is Long-Iſland, which is 140 miles long, and narrow, and ſurrounded by the ſea. The one extending north is about forty miles in breadth, and biſected by the Hudſon. And ſuch is the interſection of the whole ſtate, by the branches of the Hudſon, the Delaware, the Suſquehannah, and other rivers which have been mentioned, that there are few places, throughout its whole extent, that are more tnan fifteen or twenty miles from ſome boatable or navigable ſtream.

Bays and lakes.] York bay, which is nine miles long, and four broad, ſpreads to the ſouthward before the city of New-York. It is formed by the confluence of the Eaſt and Hudſon's river, and emboſoms ſeveral ſmall iſlands, of which Governor's Iſland is the principal. It communicates with the ocean through the *Narrows*, between Staten and Long-Iſlands, which are ſcarcely two miles wide. The paſſage up to New-York, from Sandy-Hook, the point of land that extends fartheſt into the ſea, is ſafe, and not above twenty miles in length The common navigations is between the eaſt and weſt banks, in about twenty-two feet water. There is a light-houſe at Sandy-Hook, on Jerſey ſhore.

South-Bay, is the ſouthern branch or head of Lake Champlain. It commences at the falls of a creek, which is navigable ſeveral miles into the country, and forms moſt excellent meadows. From the falls to Ticonderoga, is thirty miles. The bay is generally half a mile wide near the head, but in ſeveral places below, a mile. Its banks are ſteep hills or cliffs of rocks, generally inacceſſible. At Ticonderoga, this bay unites with Lake George, which comes from the ſouth weſt, towards the Hudſon, and is about thirty-five miles long, and one mile broad. After their union, they are contracted to a ſmall breadth, between Ticonderoga, on the weſt, and Mount Independance, on the eaſt. They then open into Lake Champlain before deſcribed.

Oneida Lake lies about twenty miles weſt of Fort Stanwix, and extends weſtward about 25 miles.

Salt Lake is ſmall, and empties into Seneca river, ſoon after its junction with the Onandago river. This lake is ſtrongly impregnated with ſaline particles, which circumſtance gave riſe to its name. The Indians make their ſalt from it.

Lake Otſego, at the head of Suſquehannah river, is about nine miles long, and narrow.

Caniaderago Lake is nearly as large as Lake Otſego, and ſix miles weſt of it. A ſtream, by the name of Oaks Creek, iſſues from it, and falls into the Suſquehannah river, about five miles below Otſego. The beſt cheeſe in the ſtate of New-York is made upon this creek.

Chatoque Lake is the ſource of Conawongo river, which empties into the Allegany. The lower end of it, whence the river proceeds, is in latitude 42° 10′; from thence to its head, is about twenty-five miles. From the north-weſt part of this lake to Lake Erie, is nine miles, and was once a communication uſed by the French.

On the north ſide of the mountains, in Orange county, is a very valuable tract called the *Drowned Lands*, containing about 40 or 50,000 acres. The waters, which deſcend from the ſurrounding hills, being but ſlowly diſcharged by the river iſſuing from it, cover theſe vaſt meadows every winter, and render them extremely fertile; but they expoſe the inhabitants

tants in the vicinity to intermittents. The Wallkill river, which paſſes through this extenſive *amphibious* tract, and empties into Hudſon's river, is, in the ſpring, ſtored with very large eels in great plenty. The bottom of this river is a broken rock; and it is ſuppoſed, that for £ 2000, the channel might be deepened ſo as to let off all the waters from the meadows, and thereby redeem from the floods a large tract of rich land, for graſs, hemp, and Indian corn.

Face of the country, ſoil and productions.] The ſtate, to ſpeak generally, is interſected by ridges of mountains running in a north-eaſt and ſouth-weſt direction. Beyond the Allegany mountains, however, the country is a dead level, of a fine, rich ſoil, covered in its natural ſtate, with maple, beach, birch, cherry, black walnut, locuſt, hickory, and ſome mulberry trees. On the banks of Lake Erie, are a few cheſnut and oak ridges. Hemlock ſwamps are interſperſed thinly through the country. All the creeks that empty into Lake Erie, have falls, which afford many excellent mill-ſeats.

Eaſt of the Allegany mountains, the country is broken into hills with rich intervening vallies. The hills are clothed thick with timber, and when cleared afford fine paſture—the vallies, when cultivated, produce wheat, hemp, flax, peas, graſs, oats, Indian corn.

Beſides the trees already mentioned, there are, in various parts of the ſtate, the ſeveral kinds of oak, ſuch as white, red, yellow, black and cheſnut oak; white, yellow, ſpruce and pitch pines; cedar, balſam, or fir-tree, butternut, aſpin, commonly called poplar, white wood, which in Pennſylvania is called poplar, and in Europe the tulip tree, ſugar and rock maple, and linden tree, which, with the whitehood, grows on the low rich ground, the buttonwood or ſycamore, ſhrub cranberry, the fruit of which hangs in cluſters like grapes as large as cherries; this ſhrub, too, grows on low ground. Beſides theſe is the ſumach, which bears cluſters of red berries; the Indians chew the leaves inſtead of tobacco; the berries are uſed in dyes. Of the commodities produced from culture, wheat is the ſtaple, of which immenſe quantities are raiſed, and exported. Indian corn and peas are likewiſe raiſed for exportation; and rye, oats, barley, &c. for home conſumption.

In ſome parts of the ſtate large dairies are kept, which furniſh for the market butter and cheeſe. The beſt lands in this ſtate, which lie along the Mohawks river, and weſt of the Allegany mountains, are yet in a ſtate of nature, or are juſt beginning to be ſettled.

Civil Diviſions, Population, Character, &c.] This ſtate, agreeably to an act of their legiſlature, paſſed in March, 1788, is divided into ſixteen counties; which, by another act paſſed at the ſame time, were divided into townſhips, as in the following table.

TABLE.

TABLE.

Counties.	Chief Towns.	Total No. of Inhabt'ts	Blacks.	Apportionment of a tax of £.24,000.	Number of townships.
NEW-YORK.	New-York, City,	23,614	2103	£.6,1000	‡
Albany,	Albany,	72,360	4690	2950	15
Suffolk,	East-Hampton, Huntingdon,	13,793	1068	2000	8
Queens.	Jamaica,	13,084	2183	2000	6
Kings,	Flatbush, Brooklyn,	3,986	1317	900	6
Richmond,	Richmond,	3,152	693	450	4
West-Chester,	Bedford, Whiteplains,	20,554	1250	1700	21
Orange,	Gothen, Orange,	14,062	858	1200	6
Ulster,	Kingston,	22,143	2662	1700	13
Dutchess,	Poughkeepsie,	32,636	1645	2550	12
* Columbia,	Hudson, Kinderhook,			1250	7
Washington,	Salem,	4,456	15	400	9
* Clinton,	Plattsburgh,				4
Montgomery,	Johnston,	15,795	405	800	9
†Cumberland,					
† Gloucester,					
Total sixteen.		238,897	18,889	£.24,000	120

* *These two counties were not constituted in* 1786, *when the above enumeration was made, and were included in some of the other counties.*

† *These counties are claimed by New-York, but are within the limits, and under the jurisdictions of Vermont.*

‡ *Not mentioned in the act.*

In the above mentioned acts the limits of the counties and townships are defined. These townships are corporations invested with certain privileges. The act directs, that the freeholders in the several townships shall assemble in town meetings, on the first Tuesday in April, annually, and choose their town officers, viz. one supervisor, one town clerk, and three to seven assessors, one or more collectors, two overseers of the poor, commissioners of highways, constables, fence viewers, pound-masters, &c. These are to hold their respective offices one year, or until others be chosen. This act, which appears to have originated from a spirit of pure republicanism, is to be in force after the first day of April, 1789. I cannot but notice, with pleasure, the happy tendency of this act, to disseminate through the state such information and such principles as are calculated to cherish the spirit of freedom, and to support our republican government. The frequent recollection of people in town-meetings makes them acquainted with each other, and assimilates their ideas and their manners: Their being invested with power, makes them feel their importance, and rouses their ambition—Their town-meetings will be a school, in which all the free citizens in the state may learn how to transact public business with propriety, and in which they may qualify themselves for the higher offices of the state.—The number of public offices will be encreased, without increasing the expences of the state; and as the desire of promotion is innate in human nature, and as ambition to possess the requisite qualifications commonly accompanies this desire, the probability is, that the number of persons qualified for public office will be increased, and of course the number of good citizens proportionably multiplied, and the subordinate civil affairs of the state more faithfully and more regularly transacted.

The number of inhabitants in this state, in 1786, was 238,897; of which 18,889 were negroes. In 1756, there were 83,233 whites, and 13,542 blacks, 96,775 in the whole. In 1771, there were 148,124 whites, and 19,883 blacks, total 168,007. The blacks, since this enumeration, have decreased 1000, which is a happy circumstance. From the humane exertions that are making in this state, for their emancipation it is probable that they will continue to decrease. From the above enumerations it appears, that the average increase of inhabitants, from 1756 to 1786, has been 4554. A considerable part of these, however, have emigrated from Europe and the New-England states. These emigrations have been very numerous, particularly from Rhode-Island, Connecticut, and Massachusetts, since the peace of 1783.

The population for every square mile, including the whole state, is only five, so that this state is but a ninth part as populous as Connecticut. But is to be considered that Connecticut has no waste lands, and not half the state of New-York is settled. The state of Connecticut, however, throughout, is at least three times as thickly populated as the settled parts of New-York. For if we suppose only one-third of the state settled, the population for every square mile will then be only sixteen From these calculations, one of these conclusions will follow, either first, That the soil of Connecticut is preferable to that of New-York; or secondly, That the settled parts of New-York would support a number of inhabitants treble to their present number; or, thirdly, That the people in Connecticut are better farmers and œconomists, or are less affluent and live poorer than the

people

people of New York. The reader is left to adopt which of these conclusions he pleases.

Previous to the year 1756, Mr. Smith, the historian of New York, observes, that the colony met with many discouragements, in regard to its settlement. 'The French and Indian irruptions,' said he, 'to which we have always been exposed, have driven many families into New-Jersey. At home, the British acts for the transportation of felons, have brought all the American colonies into discredit with the industrious and honest poor, both in the kingdoms of Great-Britain and Ireland'—'The bigotry and tyranny of some of our governors, together with the great extent of their grants, may also be considered among the discouragements against the full settlement of this province. Most of these gentlemen, coming over with no other view than to raise their own fortunes, issued extravagant patents, charged with small quit-rents, to such as were able to serve them in the assembly; and these patentees, being generally men of estates, have rated their lands so exorbitantly high, that very few poor persons could either purchase or lease them. Add to all these, that the New-England planters have always been disaffected to the Dutch; nor was there, after the surrender, any foreign accession from the Netherlands.'† Such were the discouragements which this state had to encounter, in regard to its settlement, so long as it remained a British province. But the revolution has removed most of these obstructions, and produced essential alterations in favor of this state. The few Indians who remain are, in general, friendly. Cargoes of thieves, buglars, pick-pockets, cut-purses, and other villains and flagitious banditti, from Great-Britain, who had forfeited their lives to society, are not now forced upon this or any of the other states, as they were before the revolution. They have no royal governors, independent of the people, to tyrannize over, and oppress their subjects; and to enrich themselves and their particular friends at the expence of the essential interests of the state. The overgrown estates, which have hitherto proved an effectual bar to population, and are opposed to every principle of democracy, are diminishing, or are put upon such a footing as in some measure to prevent these inconveniencies. The unhappy spirit of disaffection and jealousy, which formerly subsisted, in a high degree, between the province of New-York, and the New-England colonies, has, since the revolution, in a great measure subsided, and would perhaps have now been extinct, had it not been unfortunately revived, of late, by some political and commercial differences. But the growing liberality of both parties, and a wise and harmonizing government, will, it is hoped, soon rise superior to all local prejudices, compose all differences whether they are of a political, commercial, or national kind, and form the whole into one band of affectionate BROTHERS.

The effects of the revolution have been as greatly, and as happily felt by this, as by any of the United-States. The accession of inhabitants within a few years, has been great, and so long as New-York is the seat of the general government, will continue to increase. The new settlements that are forming in the northern and western parts of the state, are principally by people from New-England. It is remarkable that the Dutch enterprize

† Smith's Hist. New-York, p. 207. 210.

nterprize few or no ſettlements. Among all the new townſhips that ave been ſettled ſince the peace, (and they have been aſtoniſhingly nu- erous) it is not known that one has been ſettled by the Dutch. Al- nough they are as 'intent upon gain' as other people, they had rather eſt ſecure of what they poſſeſs, than hazard all, or even a part, in un- ertain attempts to increaſe it.

The Engliſh language is generally ſpoken throughout the ſtate, but is ot a little corrupted by the Dutch dialect, which is ſtill ſpoken in ſome ounties. But as Dutch ſchools are almoſt, if not wholly diſcontinued, hat language, in a few generations, will probably ceaſe to be uſed at all. And the increaſe of Engliſh ſchools has already had a perceptible effect n the improvement of the Engliſh language.

The manner of the people differ as well as their language. The an- ceſtors of the inhabitants in the ſouthern and middle parts of Long-Iſland, were either natives of England, or the immediate deſcendents of the firſt ſettlers of New-England, and their manners and cuſtoms are ſimilar to thoſe of their anceſtors. The counties inhabited by the Dutch, have adopted the Engliſh manners in a great degree, but ſtill retain many modes, particularly in their religion, which are peculiar to the Hollanders. They are induſtrious, neat, and œconomical in the management of their farms and their families. Whatever buſineſs they purſue, they generally follow the old track of their foreſathers, and ſeldom invent any new improve- ments in agriculture, manufactures, or mechanics. They were the firſt ſettlers of this ſtate, and were particularly friendly to the Engliſh colony that ſettled at Plymouth, in New-England, in 1620; and continued to be amicably diſpoſed towards the Engliſh colonies eaſt of them, until the unhappy diſpute aroſe concerning the lands on Connecticut river.

A celebrated traveller * through this ſtate, ſome years ſince, has given the following account of the Dutch; 'They are every where well known for their avarice and ſelfiſhneſs. They are unhoſpitable, and never diſ- poſed to oblige beyond a proſpect of intereſt. A commentator on this paſſage remarks, 'Such inward feelings (if it be true that they exiſt) we may well ſuppoſe would produce diſagreeable conſequences, when united with the natural effects of their ſituation in a conquered country; for the prejudice ariſing from this circumſtance ſtill remains, though the event long ſince took place. As the New England people were operative in producing this event, their firſt and greateſt malice is againſt them; while the difference in their natural diſpoſitions, and the peculiarities in the manners and cuſtoms of both parties, render them obnoxious each to the other, and afford an infinite fund to a genius for the malevolent bur- leſque.

The deſign of the Dutch in coming to this country, was not to improve their minds, nor to erect public ſeminaries of ſcience, but to increaſe their fortunes. Thus did their darling paſſion, and the unhappy circum- ſtance of their ſituation, debar them from eminence, or even progreſs, in the field of ſcience. A want of ſchools and ſeminaries furniſhed with able inſtructors of their own nation—their unacquaintedneſs with the Eng- liſh language, and their national pride, have all conſpired to keep them in

* Kalm.

in their native ignorance of every mental improvement. This will account for many unfavourable peculiarities in their manners and cuſtoms.'

'It is not to be doubted,' continues this writer, 'that there are many bright geniuſes among them, who, through the difficulties of obtaining an education, have remained unpoliſhed and unimproved. There are many, indeed, who, by their aſſiduous application, ſurmount every obſtacle, burſt through the cloud that overſhadows them, and ſhine with diſtinguiſhed luſtre in the firſt offices of church and ſtate; and their luſtre is brightened by being contraſted with the total darkneſs in which others are involved; for to be ſure, from the cauſes already aſſigned, no people are ſo ignorant as the lower claſs.

Another cauſe of their unſociability and apparent reſerve, in encouraging and aſſociating with ſtrangers, is their want of enterprize. Their neighbours, more enterprizing, emigrate and reap the fruit of thoſe advantages which their local ſituation puts in their own power. This excites jealouſy and rivalſhip. The balance of this rivalſhip they ſee is againſt them. The preſervation of their intereſt and of their dignity, calls them to unite in oppoſing their rivals. But it is evident that their union and friendſhip, in this regard, have too often their prime ſource in intereſt, are continued through intereſt, and have intereſt for their ultimate object. The intended effect of this union, is in a great meaſure loſt, through the natural jealouſies and claſhing intereſts of heads of families and their parties; for although they are all combined by the general bond of national prejudice and national cuſtoms, and national religion, they are ſplit into numerous and warm parties. And among them, he who has the greateſt intereſt and the ſtrongeſt party, not he who has the moſt merit, is the greateſt man, the moſt honourable man, and the beſt qualified for public office. In their meetings, they are even led to think and ſay the worſt of their opponents, and recal all the little circumſtances of burleſque, malice, or miſtake in them, which perſons of more liberal ſentiments would wiſh charitably to veil and bury in oblivion. Thus it is that the practice of ſlandering and injuring each other's characters, becomes common, and furniſhes a great part of their daily converſation; while that ſweet and friendly intercourſe, which mends the heart, and that dignified and ſenſible converſation which improves the mind, are almoſt wholly neglected.' Thus this commentator.

However true theſe obſervations may have been, in regard to that part of the people with which this writer was more immediately acquainted, (and it is preſumed he never meant to have them generally applied) they will admit only of a partial application to the Dutch inhabitants throughout the ſtate; and even in this caſe, it ought in juſtice to be obſerved, that the revolution and its conſequences, have had a very perceptible influence, in diffuſing a ſpirit of liberality among them, and in diſpelling the clouds of ignorance and national prejudice. Schools, academies, and colleges are eſtabliſhed and eſtabliſhing for the education of their children, in the Engliſh and learned languages, and in the arts and ſciences, and a literary and ſcientific ſpirit is evidently increaſing. If ſuch are the buddings of improvement in the dawn of our empire, what a rich harveſt may we expect in its meridian?

The

The city of New-York is inhabited principally by merchants, mechanics, ſhop-keepers, and tradeſmen, compoſed of almoſt all nations and religions. They are generally reſpectable in their ſeveral profeſſions, and ſuſtain the reputation of honeſt, punctual, fair dealers.

The manners and character of the inhabitants of every colony or ſtate, will take their colouring, in a greater or leſs degree, from the peculiar manners of the firſt ſettlers. It is much more natural for emigrants to a ſettlement to adopt the cuſtoms of the original inhabitants, than the contrary, even though the emigrants ſhould, in a length of time, become the moſt numerous. Hence it is that the neatneſs, parſimony, and induſtry of the Dutch were early imitated by the firſt Engliſh ſettlers in the province, and, until the revolution, formed a diſtinguiſhing trait in their provincial character. It is ſtill diſcernible, though in a much leſs degree, and will probably continue viſible many years to come.

Beſides the Dutch and Engliſh already mentioned, there are in this ſtate many emigrants from Scotland, Ireland, Germany, and ſome from France. The principal part of theſe are ſettled in the city of New-York, and retain the manners, the religion, and ſome of them the language of their reſpective countries.

Chief Towns.] There are three incorporated cities in this ſtate; New-York, Albany, and Hudſon. New-York is the capital of the ſtate, and, ſo long as it continues to be the ſeat of the general government, muſt be conſidered as the capital of the United States.

This city ſtands on the ſouth-weſt point of an iſland, at the confluence of the Hudſon and Eaſt River. The principal part of the city lies on the eaſt ſide of the iſland, although the buildings extend from one river to the other. The length of the city on Eaſt river is about two miles, but falls much ſhort of that diſtance on the banks of the Hudſon. Its breadth, on an average, is nearly three-fourths of a mile; and its circumference may be four miles. The plan of this city is not perfectly regular, but is laid out with reference to the ſituation of the ground. The principal ſtreets run nearly parallel with the rivers. Theſe are interſected, though not at right angles, by ſtreets running from river to river. In the width of the ſtreets there is a great diverſity. Water-ſtreet and Queen-ſtreet, which occupy the banks of Eaſt River, are very conveniently ſituated for buſineſs, but they are low and too narrow; not admitting, in ſome places, of walks on the ſides for foot paſſengers. Broad-ſtreet, extending from the Exchange to City-hall, is ſufficiently wide. This was originally built on each ſide of the creek, which penetrated almoſt to the City-hall. This ſtreet is low, but pleaſant; and that part which did not ſuffer by the fire during the war, is generally well built; the other is recovering from its ruins.

But the moſt convenient and agreeable part of the city is Broadway. This ſtreet runs upon the height of land between the two rivers, beginning at the fort near the ſouth end of the city, and extending to the Hoſpital, in front of which it opens into an extenſive plain or common. This ſtreet is wide, and elevated ſo as to command a delightful proſpect of the town, and the Hudſon.

Wall-ſtreet is generally wide and elevated, and the buildings elegant. Hanover-ſquare and Dock-ſtreet are conveniently ſituated for buſineſs, and

and the houſes well built. William-ſtreet is alſo elevated and convenient and is the principal market for retailing of dry goods. Many of the othe ſtreets are pleaſant, but moſt of them are irregular and narrow.

The houſes are generally built of brick, and the roofs tiled. There ar remaining a few houſes built after the old Dutch manner, but the Engliſl taſte has prevailed almoſt a century.

Upon the ſouth-weſt point of the land ſtands the fort, which is a ſquar with four baſtions; within the walls of which the governors uſed for merly to reſide. Below the fort, near the water, there is a line of fortifi cations of conſiderable extent, deſigned to command the entrance into botl rivers. But it is queſtionable, whether any number of cannon would pre vent ſhips from paſſing with a favourable wind and tide; and indeed whe ther New-York is capable of defence *by land* againſt a powerful marin force. The battery, however, in the ſummer ſeaſon furniſhes the citizen with an agreeable walk, which is open to refreſhing breezes from the bay.

The city-hall is a brick building, more ſtrong than elegant. It is thre ſtories in height, with wings at each end, and fronts Broad-ſtreet, whicl affords an extenſive proſpect. The firſt floor is an open walk, except tw ſmall apartments for the door-keeper and city-watch. In the ſecond ſtor of the eaſtern wing is the aſſembly chamber, now occupied by Congreſs and adorned with the following paintings: The portrait of the great Co lumbus, belonging to the aſſembly of this ſtate; a painting valuable onl for its antiquity and the character of the man—The likeneſſes of the King and Queen of France, as large as the life, executed in a maſterly manner and preſented to Congreſs by his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty; equally valua ble for the richneſs of the paintings, the dignity of the perſonages whom they repreſent, and as pledges of royal friendſhip—The likeneſs of Ge neral Waſhington, preſented by a gentleman in England; a likeneſs dea to every American, and deſtined to grace the walls of every council chamber in the New World.

The weſtern wing contains a room for the council or ſenate, now occu pied by the ſecretary of Congreſs, and another for the Mayor's court. In the body of the houſe is a ſpacious hall for the ſupreme judicial court. Large additions are now making to this building for the accommodation of Congreſs, under the direction of the ingenious Mon. Le Enfant.

There are three houſes of public worſhip belonging to the reformed Proteſtant Dutch Church, one is called the Old Dutch Church, which was built in the year 1693, and rebuilt in the year 1766; another is called the North Church, which was founded in the year 1767, and dedicated to the ſervice of God in the year 1769. This laſt church was ruined by the Britiſh during the late war, was repaired in the year 1784, and has ſince been uſed with the old church for the performance of divine ſervice. The middle church, generally called the New Dutch Church, was built in the year 1729; is the moſt ſpacious of the three, but was alſo ruined in the war, and is not yet fully repaired.

The people of this denomination were the firſt ſettlers of this ſtate, and make a reſpectable part of the citizens. The church in the city is conſidered as one church or congregation, though worſhipping in different places. The charter, or act of incorporation, was granted by William

the

the Third, in the year 1696, when Benjamin Fletcher, Eſq; was governor of the province. The miniſters, elders, and deacons are the body corporate, and hold conſiderable property. Many years before the war, they found it neceſſary, by reaſon of the decline of the Dutch language, to have ſervice performed in Engliſh, and had then two Dutch and two Engliſh miniſters. Since the war it has been performed chiefly in Engliſh, and they have at preſent only two miniſters.

There are four Preſbyterian churches in the city of New-York. The firſt was erected in the year 1719, built of ſtone, and rebuilt and enlarged in the year 1748—it is eighty feet long and ſixty wide, with a cupula and bell; and ſtands in the upper end of Wall-ſtreet, the north ſide of the ſtreet, near the Broadway. The ſecond was erected in the year 1767, is a genteel brick building, eighty-three feet long, and ſixty-five feet wide, with a ſteeple not finiſhed; it ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the green, at the head of Beekman and Naſſau-ſtreets.

The congregations worſhipping in theſe churches are connected with each other, under the care of the ſame miniſters, who preach alternately in them, and having the ſame elders and deacons; their temporalities alſo are managed by the ſame truſtees, incorporated under the law of the ſtate, paſſed in April, 1784, capacitating religious ſocieties of every denomination to incorporate themſelves, for the purpoſes therein mentioned.

The third Preſbyterian Church was erected in the year 1768, is a genteel ſtone building, ſixty-five and an half feet long, and fifty-five and an half feet wide, and ſtands in Little Queen-ſtreet, not far from the Broadway. This church is alſo incorporated agreeably to the ſame law.

Theſe three churches were occupied by the Britiſh troops during the late war, as hoſpitals and barracks, and were left by them in a moſt ruinous ſituation—and have been repaired with great neatneſs, and at a very great expence, by their reſpective congregations, ſince the peace.

The fourth Preſbyterian Church was erected in the year 1787, is a neat frame building, fifty feet long and twenty-four wide, and ſtands in Naſſau-ſtreet.

The clergy of the Preſbyterian Churches in this city are maintained by the revenues ariſing from the rents of their pews.

There are three Epiſcopal Churches in New-York, under one charter, which was granted the 6th of May, 1697. Trinity church was built in the year 1696, and at ſeveral times afterwards improved and enlarged. It was ſituated on the weſt ſide of Broadway, in view of the Hudſon, with a ſpacious cemetery on each ſide; including the tower and chancel, it was about 148 feet in length, and 72 in breadth—and the ſteeple 175 feet in height. This was ſuppoſed to be the moſt ſtately building of the kind in America, but was deſtroyed in the fire which happened juſt after the Britiſh troops entered the city in 1776. It is now rebuilding, and ſeveral thouſand pounds have already been ſubſcribed for that purpoſe.

St. George's Chapel, in Beekman-ſtreet, was finiſhed in 1750. This is a neat building, formed with hewn ſtone, and the roof tiled.

St. Paul's Chapel, in Broadway, was completed in 1766. This building, which is in itſelf elegant, is embelliſhed with a ſuperb monument, erected by order of Congreſs, and at the expence of the United States, to the

the memory of the brave General Montgomery, who fell in the attack of Quebec, December 31, 1775.

To the foregoing may be added the following churches:

German, Lutheran, and Calviniſts,	2	Moravians,	1
Roman Catholic,	1	Methodiſts,	1
Friends Meeting,	1	Jews Synagogue,	1
Baptiſts,	2	French Proteſtant Church, (out of repair)	1

The government of the city (which was incorporated in 1696) is now in the hands of a Mayor, Aldermen, and Common-Council. The city is divided into ſeven wards, in each of which there is choſen annually by the people an Alderman and an aſſiſtant, who, together with the Mayor and Recorder, from the Common-Council. The Mayor and Recorder are appointed annually by the council of appointment.

The Mayor's court, which is held from time to time by adjournment, is in high reputation as a court of law.

A court of ſeſſions is likewiſe held for the trial of criminal cauſes.

The ſituation of the city is both healty and pleaſant. Surrounded on all ſides by water, it is refreſhed with cool breezes in ſummer, and the air in winter is more temperate than in other places under the ſame parallel. York iſland is fifteen miles in length, and hardly one in breadth. It is joined to the main by a bridge called *King's bridge*. The channels between Long and Staten iſlands, and between Long and York iſlands are ſo narrow as to occaſion an unuſual rapidity of the tides, which is increaſed by the confluence of the waters of the Hudſon and Eaſt River. This rapidity in general prevents the obſtruction of the channel by ice—ſo that the navigation is clear, except for a few days in ſeaſons when the weather is uncommonly ſevere. There is no baſon or bay for the reception of ſhips, but the road where they lie in Eaſt River is defended from the violence of the ſea by the iſlands which interlock with each other; ſo that except that of Rhode-Iſland, the harbour of New-York, which admits ſhips of any burthen, is the beſt in the United States.

This city is eſteemed the moſt eligible ſituation for commerce in the United States. It almoſt neceſſarily commands the trade of one-half New-Jerſey, moſt of that of Connecticut, and part of that of Maſſachuſetts; beſides the whole fertile interior country, which is penetrated by one of the largeſt rivers in America. This city imports moſt of the goods conſumed between a line of thirty miles eaſt of Connecticut river, and twenty miles weſt of the Hudſon, which is 130 miles, and between the ocean and the confines of Cannada, about 250 miles; a conſiderable portion of which is the beſt peopled of any part of the United States, and the whole territory contains at leaſt half a million of people, or one ſixth of the inhabitants of the union. Beſides, ſome of the other ſtates are partially ſupplied with goods from New-York. But in the ſtaple commodity flour, Pennſylvania and Maryland have rivalled it—the ſurperfine flour of thoſe ſtates commanding a higher price than that of New-York.

In the manufacture likewiſe of iron, paper, cabinet works, &c. Pennſylvania exceeds not only New-York, but all her ſiſter ſtates. In times of peace, however, New-York will command more commercial buſineſs than any town in the United States. In time of war it will be

inſecure, without a marine force; but a ſmall number of ſhips will be able to defend it from the moſt formidable attacks by ſea.

A want of good water is a great inconvenience to the citizens, there being few wells in the city. Moſt of the people are ſupplied every day with freſh water, conveyed to their doors in caſks, from a pump near the head of Queen-ſtreet, which receives it from a ſpring, almoſt a mile from the city. Several propoſals have been made by individuals to ſupply the citizens by pipes, but none have yet been accepted.

New-York is the gayeſt place in America. The ladies, in the richneſs and brilliancy of their dreſs, are not equalled in any city in the United States; not even in Charleſton, (S. C.) which has heretofore been called the centre of the *Beau Monde*. The ladies, however, are not ſolely employed in attentions to dreſs. There are many who are ſtudious to add to their brilliant external accompliſhments, the more brilliant and laſting accompliſhments of the mind. Nor have they been unſucceſsful; for New-York can boaſt of great numbers of refined taſte, whoſe minds are highly improved, and whoſe converſation is as inviting as their perſonal charms. Tinctured with a Dutch education, they manage their families with good œconomy and ſingular neatneſs.

In point of ſociability and hoſpitality, New-York is hardly exceeded by any town in the United States. If, however, in regard to theſe agreeable characteriſtics, the preference muſt be given to any one place, it decidedly belongs to Charleſton. Some travellers have, in theſe reſpects, given Boſton and Newport the preference to New-York. Several cauſes have operated to diminiſh the ſociability of the citizens of New-York—particularly the change of inhabitants, by emigrations from Europe—the loſs of propetty during the ravages of the war—and the unfavourable ſtate of buſineſs a great part of the time ſince the peace. Theſe cauſes have operated equally unfavourable in ſome other parts of the union.

An enquirer, who would wiſh to acquaint himſelf with the true ſtate of the people of New-York, their manners and government, would naturally aſk the citizens for their ſocieties for the encouragement of ſciences, arts, manufactures, &c.? For their public libraries? For the patrons of literature? Their well regulated academies? For their female academy for inſtructing young ladies in geography, hiſtory, belles lettres, &c.? Such enquiries might be made with propriety, but could not, at preſent, be anſwered ſatisfactorily.

On a general view of this city, as deſcribed thirty years ago, and in its preſent ſtate, the compariſon is flattering to the preſent age; particularly the improvements in taſte, elegance of manners, and that eaſy unaffected civility and politeneſs, which form the happineſs of ſocial intercourſe.

It is found, by a memorandum in one of the old regiſters, that the number of inhabitants in the city, taken by order of the king in the year 1697, was as follows:

Whites.	Men	946
	Women	1018
	Young men and boys	864
	Young women and girls	899
Negroes.	Men	209
	Women	205
	Boys and girls	161
	Total	4302

Number

Number of inhabitants in the city and county of New-York, in 1756, 10,881—1771, 21,863—1786, 23,614*.

The city of Albany is ſituated upon the weſt ſide of Hudſon's river, 160 miles north of the city of New-York, in latitude 42° 36', and is by charter § one mile upon the river, and ſixteen miles back. It contains about 600 houſes, built moſtly by trading people on the margin of the river. The houſes ſtand chiefly upon Pearl, Market and Water-ſtreets, and ſix other ſtreets or lanes, which croſs them nearly at right angles. They are built in the old Dutch Gothic ſtile, with the gable end to the ſtreet, which cuſtom the firſt ſettlers brought with them from Holland. The gable end is commonly of brick, with the heavy moulded ornament of ſlanting with notches, like ſtairs, and an iron horſe, for a weather-cock, on the top. There is one little appendage to their houſes, which the people, blind to the inconveniences of it, ſtill continue, and that is the water-gutters or ſpouts, which project from every houſe, rendering it almoſt dangerous to walk the ſtreets in a rainy day. Their houſes are ſeldom more than one ſtory and an half high, and have but little convenience, and leſs elegance; but they are kept very neat, being rubbed with a mop almoſt every day, and ſcoured every week. The ſame neatneſs, however, is not obſerved in the ſtreets, which are very muddy moſt of the year, except thoſe which are paved; and theſe are ſeldom ſwept, and very rough.

The city of Albany contains about 4000 inhabitants, collected from almoſt all parts of the northern world. As great a variety of languages are ſpoken in Albany, as in any town in the United States. Adventurers, in purſuit of wealth, are led here by the advantages for trade which this place affords. Situated on one of the fineſt rivers in the world, at the head of ſloop navigation, ſurrounded with a rich and extenſive back country, and the ſtore-houſe of the trade to and from Canada and the lakes, it muſt flouriſh, and the inhabitants cannot but grow rich. Hudſon, however, is their rival; other rivals may ſpring up.

Albany is ſaid to be an unſociable place. This is naturally to be expected. A heterogeneous collection of people, inveſted with all their national prejudices, eager in the purſuit of gain, and jealous of a rivalſhip, cannot expect to enjoy the pleaſures of ſocial intercourſe, or the ſweets of an intimate and refined friendſhip.

A gentleman of obſervation and diſcernment, who reſided ſome time in Albany, has made the following obſervations, which, though of general application, I beg leave to introduce under this particular head:

'To form a juſt idea of the manners and cuſtoms of the inhabitants, we muſt confine ourſelves to the Dutch, who being much the moſt numerous, give the *tone* to the manners of the place. Two things unite more particularly to render theſe diſagreeable to foreigners; firſt, a natural prejudice which we all poſſeſs in favour of our own, and againſt the manners of another place or nation: ſecondly, their cloſe union, like the Jews of old, to prevent the innovation of foreigners, and to keep the balance of intereſt always in their own hands.

It

* *This account of the city of New-York, is taken principally from Mr. Webſter's valuable Magazine for March* 1788.

§ *Albany was incorporated by Colonel Dongan, in* 1686. Smith.

It is an unhappy circumſtance when an infant nation adopts the vices, luxuries and manners of an old one; but this was in a great meaſure the caſe with the firſt ſettlers of Albany, moſt of whom were immediately from Amſterdam. Their diverſions are walking and ſitting in mead houſes, and in mixed companies they dance. They know nothing of the little plays and amuſements common to ſmall ſocial circles. The gentlemen who are lively and gay, play at cards, billiards, cheſs, &c. others go to the tavern, mechanically, at eleven o'clock, ſtay until dinner, and return in the evening. It is not uncommon to ſee forty or fifty at theſe places of reſort, at the ſame time; yet they ſeldom drink to intoxication, unleſs in company, or on public occaſions, when it is thought to be no diſgrace.

They ſeldom admit many ſpectators to their marriages; but the day after, the groom prepares a cold collation, with punch, wine, &c. to partake of which, he expects all his friends will come, at eleven o'clock, without any invitation. A dictator, with abſolute power, is then appointed to preſide at each table, or in each room, and it ſeldom happens that any are ſuffered to leave the houſe, until the whole circle exhibits a ſhocking ſpecimen of human depravity.

Their funeral ceremonies are equally ſingular. None attend them without a previous invitation. At the appointed hour, they meet at the neighbouring houſes or ſtoops, until the corpſe is brought out. Ten or twelve perſons are appointed to take the bier all together, and are not relieved. The clerk then deſires the gentlemen (for ladies never walk to the grave, nor even attend the funeral, unleſs of a near relation) to fall into the proceſſion. They go to the grave, and return to the houſe of mourning in the ſame order. Here the tables are handſomely ſet and furniſhed with cold and ſpiced wine, tobacco and pipes, and candles, paper, &c. to light them. The converſation turns upon promiſcuous ſubjects, however improper, and unſuitable to the ſolemnity of the occaſion, and the houſe of mourning is ſoon converted into a houſe of feaſting.'

The beſt families live extremely well, enjoying all the conveniences and luxuries of life; but the poor have ſcarcely the neceſſaries for ſubſiſtence.

The ground covered by the city charter, is of a thin, poor ſoil. In the river before the city is a beautiful little iſland, which, were it properly cultivated, would afford a faint reſemblance of paradiſe.

The well-water in this city is extremely bad, ſcarcely drinkable by thoſe who are not accuſtomed to it. Indeed all the water for cooking is brought from the river, and many families uſe it to drink. The water in the wells, if Kalm was well informed, is unwholeſome, being full of little inſects, reſembling, except in ſize, thoſe which we frequently ſee in ſtagnated rain water.

The public buildings are, a Low Dutch church, one for Preſbyterians, one for Germans or High Dutch, one for Epiſcopalians—an hoſpital, and the City-hall.

The city of Hudſon has had the moſt rapid growth of any place in America, if we except Baltimore in Maryland. It is ſituated on the eaſt ſide of Hudſon's river, in latitude 42° 23', and is 130 miles North of New-York, thirty miles ſouth of Albany, and four miles weſt from old Claverack town. It is ſurrounded by an extenſive and fertile back country, and, in proportion to its ſize and population, carries on a large trade.

No longer ago than the autumn of 1783, Meſſrs. Seth and Thomas Jenkins, from Providence, in the ſtate of Rhode-Iſland, having firſt reconnoitred all the way up the river, fixed on the unſettled ſpot where Hudſon now ſtands, for a town. To this ſpot they found the river was navigable for veſſels of any ſize. They purchaſed a tract of about a mile ſquare, bordering on the river, with a large bay to the ſouthward, and divided it into thirty parcels or ſhares. Other adventurers were admitted to proportions, and the town was laid out in ſquares, formed by ſpacious ſtreets, croſſing each other at right angles. Each ſquare contains thirty lots, two deep, divided by a twenty feet alley; each lot is fifty feet in front, and 120 feet in depth.

In the ſpring of 1784, ſeveral houſes and ſtores were erected. The increaſe of the town from this period to the ſpring of 1786, two years only, was aſtoniſhingly rapid, and reflects great honour upon the enterprizing and perſevering ſpirit of the original founders. In the ſpace of time juſt mentioned, no leſs than 150 dwelling-houſes, beſides ſhops, barns, and other buildings, four warehouſes, ſeveral wharfs, ſpermaceti works, a covered rope-walk, and one of the beſt diſtilleries in America, were erected, and 1500 ſouls collected on a ſpot, which, three years before, was improved as a farm, and but two years before began to be built. Its increaſe ſince has been equally rapid; a printing-office has been eſtabliſhed, and ſeveral public buildings have been erected, beſides dwelling-houſes, ſtores, &c. The inhabitants are plentifully and conveniently ſupplied with water, brought to their cellars in wooden pipes, from a ſpring two miles from the town.

It ſtands on an eminence, from which are extenſive and delightful views, to the north-weſt, north, and round that way to the ſouth-eaſt, conſiſting of hills and vallies, variegated with woods and orchards, corn-fields and meadows, with the river, which is in moſt places a miles over, and may be ſeen a conſiderable diſtance to the northward, forming a number of bays and creeks. From the ſouth-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt, the city is ſcreened with hills at different diſtances; and weſt, afar off over the river and a large valley, the proſpect is bounded by a chain of ſtupendous mountains, called the Katts-kill, running to the weſt-north-weſt, which add magnificence and ſublimity to the whole ſcene.

Upwards of twelve hundred ſleighs entered the city daily, for ſeveral days together, in February 1786, loaded with grain of various kinds, boards, ſhingles, ſtaves, hoops, iron ware, ſtone for building, fire-wood, and ſundry articles of proviſion for the market; from which ſome idea may be formed of the advantage of its ſituation, with reſpect to the country adjacent, which is every day extenſive and fertile, particularly to the weſtward.

Poughkeepſie is the ſhire-town of Ducheſs county, and is ſituated upon the eaſt ſide of Hudſon's river, and north of Wappinger's-kill, or creek. It is a pleaſant little town, and has frequently been the ſeat of the ſtate government.

Lanſinburgh, formerly called the New City, ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the Hudſon, juſt oppoſite the ſouth branch of Mohawks river, and nine miles north of Albany. It is a very flouriſhing place, containing upwards of a hundred houſes, pleaſantly ſituated on a plain, at the foot of a hill.

Kingſton

Kingſton is the county town of Ulſter. Before it was burnt by the Britiſh, in 1777, it contained about 200 houſes, regularly built, on an elevated dry plain, at the mouth of a little pleaſant ſtream, called Euſopus Kill or creek, that empties into the Hudſon, but is nearly two miles weſt from the river. The town has been rebuilt.

Skenectady is ſixteen miles north-weſt of Albany, in Albany county, ſituated on the banks of the Mohawks river. The town is compact and regular, built principally of brick, on a rich flat of low land, ſurrounded with hills. The windings of the river through the town and the fields, which are often overflowed in the ſpring, afford a beautiful proſpect about harveſt time. As it is at the foot of navigation on a long river, which paſſes through a very fertile country, and is the medium of all the weſtern trade through the lakes, that comes down the Hudſon, it muſt grow rich in proportion as the country weſt of it populates.

Agriculture and Manufactures.] New-York is at leaſt half a century behind her neighbours in New-England, New-Jerſey, and Pennſylvania, in point of improvement in agriculture and manufactures. Among other reaſons for this deficiency, that of want of enterprize in the inhabitants is not the leaſt. Indeed their local advantages have been ſuch, as that they have grown rich without enterprize. Beſides, lands have hitherto been cheap, and farms of courſe large; and it requires much leſs ingenuity to raiſe 1000 buſhels of wheat upon 60 acres of land, than to raiſe the ſame quantity upon 30 acres. So long, therefore, as the farmer in New-York can have 60 acres of land to raiſe 1000 buſhels of wheat, he will never trouble himſelf to find out how he can raiſe the ſame quantity upon half the land. It is population alone that ſtamps a value upon lands, and lays a foundation for high improvements in agriculture. When a man is obliged to maintain a family upon a ſmall farm, his invention is exerciſed to find out every improvement that may render it more productive. This appears to be the great reaſon why the lands on Delaware and Connecticut river produces to the farmer twice as much clear profit, as lands in equal quantity and of the ſame quality upon the Hudſon. If the preceding obſervations be juſt, improvements will keep apace with population and the increaſing value of lands. Another cauſe which has heretofore operated in preventing agricultural improvements in this ſtate, has been their government, which, in the manner it was conducted until the revolution, was extremely unfavourable to improvements of almoſt every kind, and particularly in agriculture. The governors were many of them land-jobbers, bent on making their fortunes; and being inveſted with power to do this, they either engroſſed for themſelves, or patented away to their particular favourites, a very great proportion of the whole province. This, as has been obſerved, proved an effectual bar to population, and of courſe, according to our preſent hypotheſis, has kept down the price of lands, and ſo prevented improvements in agriculture. It ought to be obſerved, in this connection, that theſe overgrown eſtates could be cultivated only by the hands of tenants, who, having no right in the ſoil, and no certain proſpect of continuing upon the farm, which they hold at the will of their landlord, had no motives to make thoſe expenſive improvements, which, though not immediately productive, would prove very profitable in ſome future period. The tenant, dependent

dent on his landlord for his annual ſupport, confines his views and improvements to the preſent year; while the independent freeholder, ſecure of his eſtate for himſelf and his ſucceſſors, carries his views into futurity, and early lays the foundation for growing improvement. But theſe obſtacles have been removed, in a meaſure, by the revolution. The fine fertile country of the Mohawks, in Montgomery county, which was formerly poſſeſſed by Sir William Johnſon, and other land-jobbers, who were enemies to their country, has been forfeited to the ſtate, and is now ſplit up into freehold eſtates, and ſettling with aſtoniſhing rapidity.

The foregoing obſervations will, in a great meaſure, account for the great neglect of manufactural improvements. Smith, whom I have ſo often quoted, thirty years ago obſerved, 'It is much owing to the diſproportion between the number of our inhabitants, and the vaſt tracts ſtill remaining to be ſettled, that we have not as yet entered upon ſcarcely any other manufactures, than ſuch as are indiſpenſibly neceſſary for our home convenience.' This ſame cauſe has operated ever ſince, in the ſame way.

Great improvements in agriculture cannot be expected (unleſs they are made by a few individuals who have a particular genius for that buſineſs) ſo long as lands are plenty and cheap; and improvements in manufactures never precede, but invariably follow improvements in agriculture. Theſe obſervations apply more particularly to the country. The city of New-York contains a great number of people, who are employed in the various branches of manufactures. Among many other articles manufactured in this city are the following: wheel-carriages of all kinds, loaf-ſugar, bread, beer, ſhoes and boots, ſadlery, cabinet-work, cutlery, hats, clocks, watches, potters ware, umbrellas, all kinds of mathematical and muſical inſtruments, ſhips, and every thing neceſſary for their equipment. A glaſs-work and ſeveral iron-works have been eſtabliſhed in different parts of the country, but they never have been very productive, owing ſolely to the want of workmen, and the high price of labour, its neceſſary conſequence; for the internal reſources and advantages for theſe manufactories, ſuch as ore, wood, water, hearth-ſtone, proper ſituations for bloomeries, forges, and all kinds of water-works, are immenſe. There are ſeveral paper-mills in the ſtate, which are worked to advantage.

Trade.] The ſituation of New-York, with reſpect to foreign markets, has decidedly the preference to any of the ſtates. It has, at all ſeaſons of the year, a ſhort and eaſy acceſs to the ocean. We have already mentioned, that it commands the trade of a great proportion of the beſt ſettled and beſt cultivated parts of the United States It has been ſuppoſed, by gentlemen well informed, that more wealth is conveyed down Connecticut river, and through the Sound to New-York, than down the Hudſon. This is not improbable, as the banks of the Connecticut are more fertile, and much thicker and more extenſively ſettled than the banks of the Hudſon. New-York has not been unmindful of her ſuperior local advantages, but has availed herſelf of them to their full extent. Some of her commercial regulations have been viewed as oppreſſive and injurious to

to the intereſts of her neighbours, and been productive of many heavy complaints and unhappy jealouſies, which have proved unfriendly to that political union which ever ſought to ſubſiſt between confederate ſiſter ſtates. But as it is expected that the new government will remedy theſe evils, a bare mention of them is ſufficient.

There appears to be a ſecrecy in the commercial policy of this ſtate. An accurate account of their annual exports and imports, if known at all, is known to few. All therefore that can be expected under this head, in addition to what has already been obſerved, is ſimply an enumeration of the ſeveral articles exported and imported, without pretending to fix their amount. Mr. Smith † obſerves, 'In our traffic with other places, the balance is almoſt conſtantly in our favour.' This I believe has generally been the caſe. Their exports to the Weſt-Indies are, biſcuit, peaſe, Indian corn, apples, onions, boards, ſtaves, horſes, ſheep, butter, cheeſe, pickled oyſters, beef and pork. But wheat is the ſtaple commodity of the ſtate, of which no leſs than 677,700 buſhels were exported in the year 1775, beſides 2,555 tons of bread, and 2,828 tons of flour. Inſpectors of flour are appointed to prevent impoſitions, and to ſee that none is exported but that which is deemed by them merchantable. Weſt India goods are received in return for theſe articles. Beſides the above mentioned articles, are exported flax-ſeed, cotton-wool, ſarſaparilla, coffee, indigo, rice, pig iron, bar iron, pot aſh, pearl aſh, furs, deer ſkins, log wood, fuſtic, mahogany, bees wax, oil, Madeira wine, rum, tar, pitch, turpentine, whale fins, fiſh, ſugar, molaſſes, ſalt, tobacco, lard, &c. but moſt of theſe articles are imported from re-exportation. In the year 1774, there were employed, in the trade of this ſtate, 1075 veſſels, whoſe tonnage amounted to 40,812.

Mountains.] The long range of Allegany mountains commences with the Katts Kill mountain upon Hudſon's river. This range, which Mr. Jefferſon calls the *Spine* of the United States, ſpreads through this ſtate, in a north-eaſt and ſouth-weſt direction, in ſeveral diſtinct ridges, with different names.

Medicinal Springs.] The moſt noted ſprings in this ſtate are thoſe of Saratoga. They are eight or nine in number, ſituated in the margin of a marſh, formed by a branch of Kayadaroſſora Creek, about twelve miles weſt from the confluence of Fiſh-Creek and Hudſon's River. They are ſurrounded by a rock of a peculiar kind and nature, formed by the petrefaction of the water. One of them, however, more particularly attracts the attention; it riſes above the ſurface of the earth five or ſix feet, in the form of a pyramid. The aperture in the top, which diſcovers the water, is perfectly cylindrical, of about nine inches diameter. In this the water is about twelve inches below the top, except at the time of its annual diſcharge, which is commonly in the beginning of ſummer. At all times it appears to be in as great agitation as if boiling in a pot, although it is extremely cold. The ſame appearances obtain in the other ſprings, except that the ſurrounding rocks are of different figures, and the water flows regularly from them.

By

† Hiſt. New-York, p. 213.

By obſervation and experiment, the principal impregnation of the water is found to be a foſſile acid, which is predominant in the taſte. It is alſo ſtrongly impregnated with a ſaline ſubſtance, which is very diſcernible in the taſte of the water, and in the taſte and ſmell of the petrified water about it. From the corroſive and diſſolving nature of the acid, the water acquires a chalybeate property, and receives into its compoſition a portion of calcareous earth, which, when ſeparated, reſembles an impure magneſia. As the different ſprings have no eſſential variance in the nature of their waters, but the proportions of the chalybeate impregnation, it is rendered probable that they are derived from one common ſource, but flow in ſeparate channels, where they have connection with metallic bodies, in greater or leſs proportions.

The prodigious quantity of air contained in this water, makes another diſtinguiſhing property of it. This air, ſtriving for enlargement, produces the fermentation and violent action of the water before deſcribed. After the water has ſtood a ſmall time in an open veſſel (no tight one will contain it) the air eſcapes, becomes vapid, and loſes all that life and pungency which diſtinguiſh it when firſt taken from the pool. The particles of diſſolved earth are depoſited as the water flows off, which, with the combination of the ſalts and fixt air, concrete and form the rocks about the ſprings.

The effects it produces upon the human body are various; the natural operation of it, when taken, is cathartick, in ſome inſtances an emetic. As it is drank, it produces an agreeable ſenſation in paſſing over the organs of taſte, but as ſoon as it is ſwallowed, there ſucceeds an unpleaſant taſte, and the eructations which take place afterwards, cauſe a pungency very ſimilar to that produced by a draught of cyder or beer, in a ſtate of fermentation.

The following curious experiments made on theſe waters, were extracted from Dr. Mitchell's Journal.

'A young turkey held a few inches above the water in the crater of the lower ſpring, was thrown into convulſions in leſs than half a minute, and gaſping ſhewed ſigns of approaching death; but on removal from that place, and expoſure to the freſh air, revived, and became lively. On immerſion again for a minute in the gas, the bird was taken out languid and motionleſs.

A ſmall dog put into the ſame cavity, and made to breathe the contained air, was, in leſs than one minute, thrown into convulſive motions—made to pant for breath, and laſtly, to loſe entirely the power to cry or move; when taken out, he was too weak to ſtand, but ſoon, in the common air, acquired ſtrength enough to riſe and ſtagger away.

A trout recently caught, and briſkly ſwimming in a pail of brook water, was carefully put into a veſſel juſt filled from the ſpring; the fiſh was inſtantly agitated with violent convulſions, gradually loſt the capacity to move and poiſe itſelf, grew ſtupid and inſenſible, and in a few minutes was dead.

A candle repeatedly lighted and let down near the ſurface of the water, was ſuddenly extinguiſhed, and not a veſtige of light or fire remained on the wick.

Theſe

These experiments nearly correspond with those usually made in Italy, at the famous GROTTO DEL CANI, for the entertainment of travellers; as mentioned by Keysler, Addison, and others.

A bottle filled with the water and shaken, emits suddenly a large quantity of aërial matter, that either forces out the cork, or makes a way beside or through it, or bursts the vessel.

A quantity of wheaten flour, moistened with this water, and kneaded into dough, when made into cakes, and put into a baking pan, rose, during the application of heat, into light and spongy bread, without the aid of yeast or leaven.

From which it appears, that the air extricated from the water is precisely similar to that produced by ordinary fermentation.

Some lime-water, made of abalactiles brought from the subterranean cave at Rhinebec, became immediately turbid on mixture with the spring water, but when the water had been lately drawn, the precipitate was quickly re-dissolved.

Some of the rock surrounding the spring, on being put into the fire, calcined to quick lime, and slacked very well.

When the aërial matter has evaporated, the water loses its transparency and lets fall a calcareous sediment.

Whence it is true, that the gas is aërial acid, that the rock is lime-stone, and that by means of the former, the water becomes capable of dissolving and conveying the latter.'

Minerals and fossils.] This state emboſoms vast quantities of iron ore. Naturalists have observed that ore in swamps and pondy ground, vegetates and increases. There is a silver mine at Philipsburg, which produces virgin silver. Spar, zink or spelter, a semi-metal, magnez, used in glazing, peritus, of a golden hue, various kinds of copper ore, and lead and coal mines are found in this state. Also petrified wood, plaster of Paris, ising-glass in sheets, talks and chrystals of various kinds and colours, asbestos, and several other fossils. A small black stone has also been found, which vitrifies with a small heat, and makes excellent glass.

Literary and Humane Societies.] There are very few societies for improvement in knowledge or humanity in this state; and these few are in the city of New York. The first is 'The society for promoting useful knowledge.' This society is upon an establishment similar to other philosophical societies in Europe and America, but is not incorporated. The members meet once a month. Secondly, 'The society for the manumission of slaves, and protecting such of them as have been or may be liberated.' This society meets once a quarter. Both these societies consist of gentlemen of the first character in the city, and of some in other parts of the state. Besides these, there is the 'Philological society,' instituted in 1788. This growing society has for its principal object the improvement of the English language.

Literature, Colleges, Academies, &c.] Until the year 1754, there was no college in the province of New York. The state of literature, at that time, I shall give in the words of their historian, 'Our schools are in the

the loweſt order; the inſtructors want inſtruction, and through a long and ſhameful neglect of all the arts and ſciences, our common ſpeech is extremely corrupt, and the evidences of a bad taſte, both as to thought and language, are viſible in all our proceedings, public and private.' This was undoubtedly a juſt repreſentation at the time when it was written; and although much attention has ſince been paid to education in ſome populous towns, the obſervations are now but too juſtly applicable to the country at large. There are many flouriſhing academies and grammar ſchools, lately eſtabliſhed in the ſtate; but many parts of the country are either unfurniſhed with ſchools, or the ſchools which they have are kept by low ignorant men, and are worſe than none; for children had better remain in ignorance than be ill taught. But a great proportion of the United States are in the ſame ſituation in regard to ſchools.

King's-College, in the city of New York, was principally founded by the voluntary contributions of the inhabitants of the province, aſſiſted by the general aſſembly, and the corporation of Trinity church, in the year 1754, a royal charter being then obtained, incorporating a number of gentlemen therein mentioned, by the name of "The governors of the college of the province of New York, in the city of New York, in America;" and granting to them and their ſucceſſors for ever, amongſt various other rites and privileges, the power of conferring all ſuch degrees, as are uſually conferred by either of the Engliſh univerſities.

By the charter it was provided that the preſident ſhall always be a member of the church of England, and that a form of prayer collected from the liturgy of that church, with a particular prayer for the college, ſhall be daily uſed, morning and evening, in the college chapel; at the ſame time, no teſt of their religious perſuaſion was required from any of the fellows, profeſſors or tutors; and the advantages of education were equally extended to ſtudents of all denominations.

The building (which is only one third of the intended ſtructure) conſiſts of an elegant ſtone edifice, three complete ſtories high, with four ſtair caſes, twelve apartments in each, a chapel, hall, library, muſeum, anatomical theatre, and a ſchool for experimental philoſophy.

All ſtudents, but thoſe in medicine, before the revolution, were obliged to lodge and diet in the college, unleſs they were particularly exempted by the governors or preſident; and for the ſecurity of their morals, &c. the edifice was ſurrounded by an high fence, which alſo encloſes a large court and garden; and a porter uſed conſtantly to attend at the front gate, which was locked at ten o'clock each evening in ſummer, and at nine in winter; after which hours, the names of all that came in were delivered weekly to the preſident.

The college is ſituated on a dry gravelly ſoil, about 150 yards from the bank of Hudſon's river, which it overlooks; commanding a moſt extenſive and beautiful proſpect.

Since the revolution the literature of the ſtate has engaged the attention of the legiſlature. In one of their late ſeſſions an act paſſed conſtituting twenty-one gentlemen (of whom the governor and lieutenant governor, for the time being, are members *ex officiis*) a body corporate and politic, by the name and ſtile of 'The regents of the univerſity of the ſtate of New York.' They are entruſted with the care of literature in general

in

in the ſtate, and have power to grant charters of incorporation for erecting colleges and academies throughout the ſtate—are to viſit theſe inſtitutions as often as they ſhall think proper, and report their ſtate to the legiſlature once a year. All degrees above that of maſter of arts are to be conferred by the regents.

King's college, which we have already deſcribed, is now called COLUMBIA COLLEGE. This college, by an act of the legiſlature paſſed in the ſpring of 1787, was put under the care of twenty four gentlemen, who are a body corporate, by the name and ſtyle of 'The truſtees of Columbia college in the city of New-York.' This body poſſeſſes all the powers veſted in the governors of King's college, before the revolution, or in the regents of the univerſity, ſince the revolution, ſo far as their power reſpected this inſtitution, except the conferring of the higher degrees. No regent can be a truſtee of any particular college or academy in the ſtate.

The college edifice has received no additions ſince the peace. The funds produce, annually, about £.1000. The library and muſeum were deſtroyed during the war. The philoſophical apparatus coſt about 300 guineas. Until the revolution the college did not flouriſh. The plan upon which it was originally founded, was contracted, and its ſituation unfavourable. The former objection is removed, but the latter muſt remain. It has between thirty and forty ſtudents, in four claſſes. The number for ſeveral years has been increaſing The officers of inſtruction and immediate government are, a preſident, profeſſor of languages, profeſſor of mathematics, profeſſor of logic and rhetoric, profeſſor of natural philoſophy, profeſſor of geography, and a profeſſor of moral philoſophy. There are many other profeſſors belonging to the univerſity, but their profeſſorſhips are merely honorary.

There are ſeveral academies in the ſtate. One is at Flatbuſh, in King's county, on Long-Iſland, four miles from Brooklyn-ferry. It is ſituated in a pleaſant, healthy village. The building is large, handſome, and convenient, and is called *Eraſmus Hall.* The academy is flouriſhing under the care of a principal and other ſubordinate inſtructors. The truſtees of this inſtitution have been incorporated by the regents of the univerſity.

There is a very flouriſhing academy at Eaſt Hampton, on the eaſt end of Long-Iſland; to which alſo the regents have given a charter of incorporation by the name of CLINTON ACADEMY.

There are other academies, or more properly grammar ſchools, in different parts of the ſtate. There are ſeveral in the city of New York, furniſhed with able inſtructors; one at Kingſton, in Ulſter county; one at Goſhen, in the county of Orange; two at Albany; one at Skenectady; one at Lanſingburgh, and another at Weſt Cheſter. None of theſe have yet applied for charters. Beſides theſe, in many parts of the ſtate there are ſchools erected, which are maintained by the voluntary contributions of the parents. A ſpirit for literary improvement, is evidently diffuſing its influence throughout the ſtate.

Religion.] The conſtitution of this ſtate provides for 'the free exerciſe and enjoyment of religious profeſſion and worſhip, without diſcrimination or preference, within the ſtate, for all mankind. Provided that the liberty

liberty of conſcience hereby granted, ſhall not be ſo conſtrued as to excuſe acts of licentiouſneſs, or juſtify practices inconſiſtent with the peace and ſafety of the ſtate.'

The various religious denominations in this ſtate, with the number of their reſpective congregations, are as follow:

Denominations.	*No. Congregations.*	*Denominations.*	*No. Congregations.*
Engliſh Preſbyterian,	87	German Lutheran,	12
Dutch Reformed, (Including ſix of the German language.)	66	Moravians,	2
		Methodiſts,	1
		Roman Catholic,	1
Baptiſts,	39	Jews,	1
Epiſcopalians,	26	Shakers,	unknown.
Friends, or Quakers.	20		

The preſbyterian churches are governed by congregational, preſbyterial, and ſynodical aſſemblies. Theſe aſſemblies poſſeſs no civil juriſdiction. Their power is wholly moral or ſpiritual, and that only miniſterial and declarative. They poſſeſs the right of requiring obedience to the laws of Chriſt, and of excluding the diſobedient from the privileges of the church; and the powers requiſite for obtaining evidence and inflicting cenſure; but the higheſt puniſhment, to which their authority extends, is to exclude the contumacious and impenitent from the congregation of believers.

The *church ſeſſion*, which is the congregational aſſembly, conſiſts of the miniſter or miniſters and elders of a particular congregation. This body is inveſted with the ſpiritual government of the congregation.

A *preſbytery* conſiſts of all the miniſters, and one ruling elder from each congregation, within a certain diſtrict. Three miniſters and three elders, conſtitutionally convened, are competent to do buſineſs. This body have cognizance of all things that regard the welfare of the particular churches within their bounds, which are not cognizable by the ſeſſion. Alſo, they have a power of receiving and iſſuing appeals from the ſeſſions —of examining and licenſing candidates for the miniſtry—of ordaining, ſettling, removing, or judging miniſters—of reſolving queſtions of doctrine or diſcipline, and whatever elſe pertains to the ſpiritual concerns of the churches under their care.

A *Synod* is a convention of ſeveral preſbyteries. The ſynod have power to admit and judge of appeals, regularly brought up from the preſbyteries—to give their judgment on all references made to them, of an eccleſiaſtical kind—to correct and regulate the proceedings of preſbyteries, &c.

The higheſt judicatory of the preſbyterian church is ſtiled *The general council of the preſbyterian church in the United States of America.* This grand council is to conſiſt of an equal delegation of biſhops and elders from each preſbytery within their juriſdiction, by the title of *commiſſioners to the general council.* Fourteen commiſſioners make a quorum. The council conſtitute the bond of union, peace, correſpondence, and mutual confidence among all their churches; and have power to receive and iſſue all appeals and references which may regularly be brought before them from the inferior judicatories—to regulate and correct the proceedings of the

the ſynods, &c.—Thus the whole preſbyterian intereſt is judiciouſly combined and governed.

The ſynods of New-York and Philadelphia, during their ſeſſion at Philadelphia, in May, 1788, reſolved themſelves into four ſynods, viz. The ſynod of New-York; the ſynod of Philadelphia; the ſynod of Virginia; and the ſynod of Carolina. Theſe ſynods are to meet annually in their reſpective ſtates, whence they take their names; and once a year, by their commiſſioners, in general council, at Philadelphia.

There are number of Preſbyterian churches, commonly called *Seceeders*, who have a ſeparate eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction. Theſe, as well as the other preſbyterians, and the Dutch reformed churches, hold the doctrines of the goſpel upon the Calviniſtic plan, without any eſſential differences.

The Dutch reformed churches in this ſtate are divided into four claſſes; viz. The claſſis of New-York, comprehending eighteen churches; the claſſis of Kingſton, twenty-three churches; the claſſis of Albany, twenty-three churches; a part of the claſſis of Hackinſak, four churches. Theſe claſſes, together with the claſſis of Hackinſak and New-Brunſwick, in New-Jerſey, compoſe the Dutch reformed ſynod of New-York and New-Jerſey. The claſſes conſiſt of miniſters and ruling elders; each claſſis delegates two miniſters and an elder to repreſent them in ſynod. From the firſt planting of the Dutch churches in New-York and New-Jerſey, they have, under the direction of the claſſis of Amſterdam, been formed exactly upon the plan of the eſtabliſhed church of Holland, as far as that is eccleſiaſtical. A ſtrict correſpondence is maintained between the Dutch reformed ſynod of New-York and New-Jerſey, and the ſynod of North-Holland, and the claſſis of Amſterdam. The acts of their ſynods are mutually exchanged every year, and mutual advice is given and received in diſputes reſpecting doctrinal points and church diſcipline.

The principles and conſtitution of the Baptiſt churches have already been mentioned.

The Epiſcopalian churches hold the ſame principles—have the ſame mode of worſhip and church government—and are in every other reſpect conſtituted upon the ſame plan with the church of the ſame denomination in England.

For an account of the Friends and the Moravians, ſee Pennſylvania.

The Methodiſt intereſt, though ſmall in this ſtate, has greatly increaſed in the ſouthern ſtates ſince the revolution. They have eſtimated their number at 37,800. But their numbers are ſo various in different places, at different times, that it would be a matter of no ſmall difficulty to find out their exact amount. The late famous Mr. John Weſley has been called the Father of this religious ſect. They warmly oppoſe the Calviniſtic doctrines of election and final perſeverance, and maintain that ſinleſs perfection is attainable in this life. Their mode of preaching is entirely extemporaneous, very loud and animated, bordering on enthuſiaſm. They appear ſtudiouſly to avoid connection in their diſcourſes, and are fond of introducing pathetic ſtories, which are calculated to affect the tender paſſions. Their manner is very ſolemn, and their preaching is frequently attended with a ſurpriſing effect upon their audiences. Their churches are ſupplied by their preachers in rotation.

The

The Shakers are a ſect who ſprung up in Europe. A part of them came over from England to New-York in 1774, and being joined by others, they ſettled at Niſqueaunia, above Albany, whence they ſpread their doctrines, and increaſed to a conſiderable number; but their intereſt is now faſt declining. The late *Anna Leeſe*, whom they ſtiled the *Elect Lady*, was the head of this ſect. Her followers aſſerted, that ſhe was the woman ſpoken of in the twelfth chapter of the Revelation, and that ſhe ſpoke ſeventy-two tongues:—And although theſe tongues were unintelligible to the living, ſhe converſed with the dead who underſtood her language. They alledged alſo that ſhe was the mother of all the *Elect*:—that ſhe travailed for the whole world—that no bleſſing could deſcend to any perſon but only by and through her, and that in the way of her being poſſeſſed of their ſins, by their confeſſing and repenting of them, one by one, according to her direction. The Elect Lady uſed to aſſert that ſhe was immortal—that the day of judgment had commenced, and that ſhe and her followers were already ſet to judge the world. But her death has indiſputably proved that ſhe was not immortal as to her bodily preſence; and this circumſtance, no doubt, has created ſuſpicions in the minds of ſome of her followers reſpecting ſome other of her aſſertions and doctrines, and occaſioned them to renounce the ſcheme.

Their worſhip, if ſuch extravagant conduct may be ſo called, conſiſts principally in dancing, ſinging, leaping, clapping their hands, falling on their knees, and uttering themſelves in groans and ſighs in a ſound reſembling that of the roaring of water; turning round on their heels with aſtoniſhing ſwiftneſs, to ſhew, as they ſay, the power of God. All theſe geſticulations are performed in the moſt voilent and boiſterous manner, and occaſion, at intervals, a ſhuddering not unlike that of a perſon in a ſtrong fit of the ague. Hence they are called, not improperly, *Shakers*.

Before we leave this head, we muſt mention, that in April, 1784, the legiſlature of this ſtate paſſed an act enabling all religious denominations to appoint truſtees, not leſs than three, or more than nine, who ſhall be a body corporate, for the purpoſe of taking care of the temporalities of their reſpective congregations, and for the other purpoſes therein mentioned.

The miniſters of every denomination in the ſtate are ſupported by the voluntary contributions of the people, raiſed generally by ſubſcription, or by a tax upon the pews, except the Dutch churches in New-York, Albany, Skenectady, and Kingſton, which have, except the two laſt, large eſtates confirmed by a charter. The Epiſcopal church alſo in New-York poſſeſs a very large eſtate in and near the city.

Conſtitution and Courts of Juſtice.] The preſent conſtitution of the ſtate was eſtabliſhed by convention, authoriſed for the purpoſe, April 20, 1777.

The ſupreme legiſlative powers of the ſtate are veſted in two branches, a *Senate* and *Aſſembly*. The members of the ſenate are elected by the freeholders of the ſtate, who poſſeſs freehold eſtates to the value of £.100, clear of debts. For the purpoſe of electing ſenators, the ſtate is divided into four great diſtricts, each of which chooſes a certain number, viz.

Southern diſtrict, including the counties of New-York, Suffolk, Weſt Cheſter, King's, Queen's, Richmond, — Nine Senators.

Middle Diſtrict — Dutcheſs, Ulſter, Orange, — Six.

Weſtern

Western District	Albany, Montgomery,	Six	Eastern District	Washington, *Cumberland*, *Glouceſter*,	Three.

The ſenators are divided by lot into four claſſes, ſix in each claſs, and numbered, firſt, ſecond, third, and fourth. The ſeats of the firſt claſs are vacated at the expiration of one year—the ſecond, at the expiration of the next, &c. and their places filled by new elections. Thus a ſmall change is made in the ſenate every year; but three-fourths of the members remaining preſerve a knowledge of the buſineſs of a former ſeſſion. A majority of the ſenate is neceſſary to do buſineſs, and each branch of the legiſlature has a negative upon the other.

The legiſlature can at any time alter this diviſion of the ſtate for the choice of ſenators; and an increaſe of electors in any diſtrict, to the amount of one-twenty-fourth of the electors in the whole ſtate, entitles the diſtrict to another ſenator. But the number of ſenators can never exceed one hundred

The aſſembly of the ſtate is compoſed of repreſentatives from the ſeveral counties, choſen annually in May, in the following proportion:

For the city and county of New-York, nine.

For the city and county of Albany, ſeven.

For Dutcheſs,	7	For Richmond,	2
Weſt Cheſter,	6	Montgomery,	6
Ulſter,	6	Waſhington, and Clinton,	4
Suffolk,	5	Columbia,	3
Queen's,	4	*Cumberland*,	3
Orange,	4	*Glouceſter*,	2
King's,	2		

By the conſtitution, however, it is ordered, that at the end of ſeven years after the termination of the late war, a cenſus of the electors and inhabitants ſhall be taken, and the repreſentation apportioned according to the number of electors in each county.

Every male inhabitant of full age, who has reſided in the ſtate ſix months preceding the day of election, and poſſeſſing a freehold to the value of twenty pounds, in the county where he is to give his vote; or has rented a tenement therein of the yearly value of forty ſhillings, and has been rated and actually paid taxes, is entitled to vote for repreſentatives in aſſembly. The freedom of the cities of New-York and Albany likewiſe entitles a perſon to the privilege of voting for members of aſſembly in the city or country where he reſides. The method of voting is now by ballot, but ſubject to alteration by the legiſlature. The houſe of aſſembly, a majority of which is neceſſary to proceed to buſineſs, chooſes its own ſpeaker, and is a judge of its own privileges.

In all debates on great queſtions, the houſe reſolves itſelf into a committee of the whole—the ſpeaker leaves the chair, and a chairman is appointed for the occaſion. After the buſineſs is completed, the committee riſes—the ſpeaker takes the chair—and the chairman reports to the houſe the proceedings of the committee. How far this imitation of the Britiſh houſe of commons is ſupported by good reaſons, it may not be eaſy to determine. Certain it is, that in other legiſlatures the proceedings are equally well conducted without this formality.

The

The number of repreſentatives is limited to three hundred. The preſent number is ſixty-five.

The ſupreme executive power of the ſtate is veſted in a governor, (in whoſe abſence a deputy-governor is appointed to ſerve) choſen once in three years by the freemen of the ſtate. The lieutenant-governor is, by his office, preſident of the ſenate; and, upon an equal diviſion of voices, has a caſting vote; but has no voice on other occaſions. The governor has not a ſeat in the legiſlature; but as a member of the council of reviſion and council of appointment, he has a vaſt influence in the ſtate.

The council of reviſion is compoſed of the chancellor, the judges of the ſupreme court, or any of them, and the governor. This council is empowered to reviſe all bills which have paſſed the two houſes of the legiſlature, and if it ſhall appear to the council that ſuch bills ought not to paſs into laws, they ſhall be returned to the houſe in which they originated, with the objections of the council. The houſe ſhall then proceed to reconſider the bills, with the objections, and if, notwithſtanding, two-thirds of the houſe ſhall agree to the bills, they ſhall be ſent to the other houſe, where they ſhall be reconſidered, and the aſſent of two-thirds of the members paſs them into laws. But if a bill is not returned in ten days, it becomes a law of courſe.

The ſubordinate officers of the ſtate are appointed by the *council of appointment*, which is compoſed of one ſenator from each diſtrict, to be choſen annually by the legiſlature, with the governor, or, in his abſence, the lieutenant-governor, or the preſident of the ſenate, who has a caſting vote only.

All military officers hold their commiſſions during pleaſure. The chancellor, the judges of the ſupreme court, and the firſt judge of each county court, hold their offices during good behaviour. The officers can hold no other office at the ſame time, except that of delegate to Congreſs

Sheriffs and coroners are appointed annually, and can ſerve but four years ſucceſſively.

A court of error and impeachment is inſtituted, compoſed of the preſident of the ſenate, the ſenate, chancellor, and judges of the ſupreme court, or the major part of them, under the regulation of the legiſlature. The power of impeachment is veſted in the houſe of repreſentatives, and the members on trial muſt be ſworn.

Beſides the court of errors and impeachment, there is, firſt, a *Court of Chancery*, conſiſting of a chancellor, appointed by the council of appointment, who holds his office during good behaviour, or until he arrive at the age of ſixty years. Secondly, a *Supreme Court*, the judges of which are appointed in the ſame manner, and for the ſame time, as the chancellor. This is a circuit court.—Thirdly, *County Courts*, held in each county, the judges of which are appointed in the manner above-mentioned, and the firſt judge holds his office during good behaviour. Beſides theſe, there are the juſtices' court, court of probates, court of admiralty, court of exchequer, a court of oyer and terminer and general goal delivery, and courts of quarter ſeſſions.

The practice in the ſupreme court, to which an appeal lies from the courts below, is in imitation of the courts of common pleas and king's bench in England.

Al

All free governments abound with lawyers. Where men have the privilege of thinking and acting for themſelves, they will involve themſelves in debt, and quarrel with their neighbours. In proportion to the debts and diſputes of the people, lawyers will multiply. Of theſe America furniſhes a plentiful growth, and New-York has its ſhare, as it contains not leſs than 120 licenſed attornies. In this ſtate, the practice of law is conformed to the Engliſh mode, and is perhaps better regulated than in the other ſtates. The ſeveral degrees in the profeſſion, the number of critical examinations that candidates are obliged to paſs through before they can be admitted as counſellors in the higher courts; together with the time of ſtudy required by the rules of admiſſion, render an acceſs to the firſt honours of the bar ſo difficult as to preclude ignorant pretenders to the important ſcience of law. New-York can boaſt of many men eminent in every liberal profeſſion, and which has hitherto furniſhed America with ſome of her moſt able legiſlators. It is however to be feared, that a too rigid adherence to the forms of legal proceſs in England, has ſometimes perplexed the road to juſtice, and prevented valuable improvements in the practice, not only in this, but of moſt of the ſtates.

Mode of raiſing internal taxes.] The legiſlature fix upon the ſum to be raiſed, and apportion it among the ſeveral counties. This being done, the ſupervifors, one from each townſhip in the reſpective counties, aſſemble, and aſſign to each townſhip its proportion of the quota of the county. The ſupervifor and aſſeſſors in each townſhip then apportion their quota among the individuals of the townſhip, according to the value of their real and perſonal eſtates. The tax, thus laid, is collected by the collector of the townſhip, and lodged with the county treaſurer, who tranſmits it to the treaſurer of the ſtate.

Indians.[The *Oneidas* inhabit on Oneida Creek, twenty-one miles weſt of Fort Stanwix. The tribe conſiſts of about 400 men, women and children.

The *Tuſcaroras* migrated from North-Carolina and the frontiers of Virginia, and were adopted by the Oneidas, with whom they have ever ſince lived, upon the ſuppoſition that they were originally of the ſame nation, becauſe there is a ſimilarity in their languages.

The *Senecas* inhabit on the Cheneſſee river, at the Cheneſſee caſtle. The tribe conſiſts of about 800 ſouls. They have two towns, of ſixty or ſeventy ſouls each, on French Creek, in Pennſylvania; and another town on Buffaloe Creek, attached to the Britiſh; and two ſmall towns on Allegany river, attached to the Americans. Obeil or Corn-planter, one of the Seneca chiefs, reſides here.

The *Mohawks* were acknowledged by the other tribes, to uſe their own expreſſion, to be 'the true old heads of the confederacy;' and were formerly a powerful tribe, inhabiting on the Mohawks river. As they were ſtrongly attached to the Johnſon family, on account of Sir William Johnſon, they emigrated to Canada, with Sir John Johnſon, about the year 1776. There is now only one family of them in the ſtate, and they live about a mile from Fort Hunter. The father of this family was drowned in the winter of 1788.

All the confederated tribes, except the Oneidas and Tuſcaroras, ſided with the Britiſh in the late war, and fought againſt the Americans.)

The *Onondagas* live near the Salt or Onondaga Lake, about twenty-ve miles from the Oneida Lake. In the ſpring of 1779, a regiment of men were ſent from Albany by General J. Clinton, againſt the Onondagas. This regiment ſurprized their town—took thirty-three priſoners—killed twelve or fourteen, and returned without the loſs of a man. A party of the Indians were at this time ravaging the American frontiers.

The are very few of the *Delaware* tribe in this ſtate.

The *Five* confederated *Nations* were ſettled along the banks of the Suſquehannah, and in the adjacent country, until the year 1779, when General Sullivan, with an army of 4000 men, drove them from their country to Niagara, where being obliged to live on ſalted proviſions, to which they were unaccuſtomed, great numbers of them died. Two hundred of them, it is ſaid, were buried in one grave, where they had encamped. General Sullivan burnt ſeveral of their towns, deſtroyed their proviſions, and defeated them in an engagement at Newton. Since this irruption into their county, their former habitations have been moſtly deſerted, and many of them have gone into Canada.

On the 13th of November, 1787, John Lavingſton, Eſq; and four others, obtained of the Six Nations of Indians a leaſe for 999 years, on a yearly rent reſerved of 2000 dollars, of all the country included in the following limits, viz. beginning at a place commonly known by the name of Canada Creek, about ſeven miles weſt of Fort Stanwix, now Fort Schuyler, thence north-eaſtwardly to the line of the province of Quebec; thence along the ſaid line to the Pennſylvania line; thence eaſt on the ſaid line, or Pennſylvania line, to the line of Property, ſo called by the ſtate of New-York; thence along the ſaid line of Property, to Canada Creek aforeſaid. And on the 8th of January, 1788, the ſame perſons obtained a leaſe of the Oneida Indians, for 999 years, on a rent reſerved for the firſt year of 1200 dollars, and increaſing it at the rate of 100 dollars a year, until it amount to 1500 dollars, of all the tract of land commonly called the Oneida country, except a reſervation of ſeveral tracts ſpecified in the leaſe. But theſe leaſes having been obtained without the conſent of the legiſlature of the ſtate, the ſenate and aſſembly, in their ſeſſion, March 1788, reſolved, 'That the ſaid leaſes are purchaſes of lands; and therefore, that by the conſtitution of this ſtate the ſaid leaſes are not binding on the ſaid Indians, and are not valid.'—This very important and intereſting diſpute remains to be ſettled.

We ſhall conclude this account of the Indians, with an Indian ſpeech to Sir William Johnſon, ſuperintendant of Indian affairs, at a treaty held with the Six Nations and others, at Fort Stanwix, in October 1768, for the ſettlement of a boundary line between the Colonies and the Indians.

'We remember that on our firſt meeting you, when you came with your ſhips, we kindly received you—entertained you—entered into an alliance with you, though we were then great and numerous, and your people inconſiderable and weak. And we know that we entered into a covenant-chain of bark with you, and faſtened your ſhip therewith. But being apprehenſive the bark would break, and your ſhip be loſt, we made one of iron, and held it faſt that it ſhould not ſlip from us—but ſeeing the former chain was liable to ruſt, we made a ſilver one to guard againſt it.'

Iſlands]

Iſlands] There are three iſlands of note belonging to this ſtate, viz. York Iſland, which has already been deſcribed, Long Iſland, and Staten Iſland.

Long Iſland extends from the city of New-York eaſt 140 miles, and terminates with Montauk-point. It is not more than ten miles in breadth, on a medium, and is ſeparated from Connecticut by Long Iſland Sound. The iſland is divided into three counties; King's, Queen's, and Suffolk.

King's County lies at the weſt end of Long Iſland, oppoſite New-York, and is not above ten miles long, and eight broad. The inhabitants are principally Dutch, and live well. It contains a number of pleaſant villages, of which Flatbuſh, Brooklyn, or Breucklin, and Bedford, are the principal.

Queen's County lies next to King's, as you proceed eaſtward. It is about thirty miles long, and twelve broad. Jamaica, Newton, Hampſtead, in which is a handſome court-houſe, and Oyſter-bay, are the principal villages in this county.

Suffolk County is about 100 miles long, and ten broad, and comprehends all the eaſtern part of the iſland, and ſeveral little iſlands adjoining, viz. Shelter Iſland, Fiſher's Iſland, Plumb Iſland, and the Iſle of Wight. Its principal towns are Huntington, Southampton, Smith-Town, Brook-Haven, Eaſt-Hampton, in which is the academy, Southhold and Bridge-Hampton.

The ſouth ſide of the iſland is flat land, of a light ſandy ſoil, bordered on the ſea-coaſt with large tracts of ſalt meadow, extending from the weſt point of the iſland to Southampton. This ſoil, however, is well calculated for raiſing grain, eſpecially Indian corn. The north ſide of the iſland is hilly, and of a ſtrong ſoil, adapted to the culture of grain, hay and fruit. A ridge of hills extends from Jamaica to Southhold. Large herds of cattle feed upon Hampſtead plain, and on the ſalt marſhes upon the ſouth ſide of the iſland.

Hampſtead plain, in Queen's county, is a curioſity. It is ſixteen miles in length, eaſt and weſt, and ſeven or eight miles wide. The ſoil is black, and to appearance rich, and yet it was never known to have any natural growth but a kind of wild graſs, and a few ſhrubs. It is frequented by vaſt numbers of plovers. Rye grows tolerably well on ſome parts of the plain. The moſt of it lies common for cattle, horſes and ſheep. As there is nothing to impede the proſpect in the whole length of this plain, it has a curious but tireſome effect upon the eye, not unlike that of the ocean.

Eaſt of this plain, on the middle of the iſland, is a barren heath, overgrown with ſhrub oaks and pines, in which, it is ſuppoſed, there are ſeveral thouſand deer. It is frequented alſo by a great number of growſe, or heath-hens, a very delicious bird. Laws have been paſſed for the preſervation of theſe birds and the deer.

It is remarkable, that on Montauk-point, at the eaſt end of the iſland, there are no flies. Between this point and Eaſt Hampton is a beach, three quarters of a mile wide, in the center of which was found, about fifty years ago, under a ſand hill which was blown up by the wind, the entire ſkeleton of a large whale, nearly half a mile from the water.

There are very few rivers upon the iſland. The largeſt is Peakonok, which riſes about ten miles weſt of a place called River head, where the court-houſe ſtands, and runs eaſterly into a large bay, dividing Southhold from Southampton. In this bay are Robin and Shelter Iſlands.

The ſouth ſide of the iſland is indented with numerous ſtreams of various ſizes, which fall into a large bay, two or three miles over, formed by a beach, about eighty rods wide, which appears like a border to the iſland, extending from the weſt end of it to Southampton. Through this beach, in various places, are inlets of ſuch depth as to admit of veſſels of ſixty or ſeventy tons,

This bay was formerly freſh water. As evidences of this, the ſtumps of trees are to be ſeen in great numbers on the ſalt marſh, near the upland. Oyſters, clams, and fiſh of various kinds, are caught with eaſe, and in great plenty in this bay, with ſeines, during the winter ſeaſon. It is not uncommon to ſee forty or fifty veſſels here loading with oyſters at the ſame time. And what is almoſt incredible, though I was told of it by two gentlemen of truth, and who were well informed as to the matter, thirty waggon loads of baſs have been caught in this bay at one draught.

Rockonkama pond, lies about the centre of the iſland, between Smithtown and Iſlip, and is about a mile in circumference. This pond has been found by obſervation, to riſe gradually for ſeveral years, until it had arrived to a certain height, and then to fall more rapidly to its loweſt bed; and thus it is continually ebbing and flowing. The cauſe of this curious phenomenon has never been inveſtigated. Two miles to the ſouthward of this pond is a conſiderable ſtream, called Connecticut river, which empties into the bay.

There are two whale fiſheries; one from Sagg harbour, which produces about 1000 barrels of oil annually. The other is much ſmaller, and is carried on by the inhabitants in the winter ſeaſon, from the ſouth ſide of the iſland. They commonly catch from three to ſeven whales in a ſeaſon, which produce from twenty-five to forty barrels of oil. This fiſhery was formerly a ſource of conſiderable wealth to the inhabitants, but through a ſcarcity of whales, it has greatly declined of late years.

There is a conſiderable trade carried on from Sagg-harbour, whence is exported to the Weſt-Indies and other places, whale oil, pitch-pine boards, horſes, cattle, flax-ſeed, beef, &c. The produce of the middle and weſtern parts of the iſland is carried to New-York.

The iſland contains 30,863 inhabitants.

Staten Iſland lies nine miles ſouth-weſt of the city of New-York, and forms Richmond county. It is about eighteen miles in length, and, at a medium, ſix or ſeven in breadth, and contains 3,152 inhabitants. On the ſouth ſide is a conſiderable tract of level good land; but the iſland in general is rough, and the hills high. Richmond is the only town of any note on the iſland, and that is a poor, inconſiderable place. The inhabitants are principally Dutch and French.

Hiſtory.] Hudſon's River was firſt diſcovered in 1608, by Henry Hudſon, an Engliſhman, who ſold his claim to the Dutch.

In 1614, the States General granted a patent to ſeveral merchants, for an excluſive trade on the river Hudſon. The ſame year this company built a Fort

a Fort on the weſt ſide of the river, near Albany, and named it Fort Orange.

In 1615, a fort was built on the ſouthweſt point of Manhattan's, now York iſland; but the firſt ſettlers planted themſelves about two miles from this fort, and built a church there, the ruins of which, it is ſaid, are ſtill viſible, near the two mile ſtone on the public road. In this ſituation, finding themſelves inſecure during the wars between the Engliſh and Dutch, they left this place, and planted their habitations under the guns of the fort, which laid the foundation of the preſent city.

In 1614, Captain Argall, under Sir Thomas Dale, governor of Virginia, viſited the Dutch on Hudſon's river, who being unable to reſiſt him, prudently ſubmitted for the preſent, to the king of England, and under him to the governor of Virginia. Determined upon the ſettlement of a colony, the States-general, in 1621, granted the country to the Weſt India company; and in the year 1629, Wouter Van Twiller arrived at Fort Amſterdam, now New York, and took upon himſelf the government.

In Auguſt 27, 1664, governor Stuyveſant ſurrendered the colony to colonel Nicolls, who had arrived in the bay a few days before, with three or four ſhips, and about 300 ſoldiers, having a commiſſion from king Charles the II. to reduce the place, which then was called New Amſterdam, but was changed to New York, as was Fort Orange to Albany, in honour of his Royal Highneſs James Duke of York and Albany. Very few of the inhabitants thought proper to remove out of the country; and their numerous deſcendants are ſtill in many parts of this ſtate, and New-Jerſey.

In 1667, at the peace of Breda, New York was confirmed to the Engliſh, who in exchange ceded Surinam to the Dutch.

The Engliſh kept peaceable poſſeſſion of the country until the year 1673, when the Dutch, with whom they were then at war, ſent a ſmall ſquadron, which arrrived at Staten Iſland, on the 30th of July. John Manning, a captain of an independent company, who had at that time the command of the fort, ſent a meſſenger down to the commodore, and treacherouſly made his terms with him: on the ſame day the ſhips came up, moored under the fort, landed their men, and entered the garriſon, without giving or receiving a ſhot. All the magiſtrates and conſtables from Eaſt Jerſey, Long Iſland, Æſopus, and Albany, were ſummoned to New York; and the major part of them ſwore allegiance to the States General and the Prince of Orange. The conquerors, however, did not long enjoy the fruits of their ſucceſs, for on the 9th of February the year following, a treaty of peace between England and Holland was ſigned at Weſtminſter; by the ſixth article of which, this province was reſtored to the Engliſh, in whoſe hands it remained until the late revolution.

While New York remained in poſſeſſion of the Dutch it was called New Netherlands, and governed by a Scout, Burgomaſters and Schepens. From its ſurrender to the Engliſh in 1664, to 1683, the province was ruled by governors, appointed and commiſſioned by the Duke of York, and their council, whoſe rules and orders had the force of laws. From the laſt named period, the people were admitted to a ſhare of the legiſlative authority.

The confederated Cantons of Indians, before the incorporation of the Tuſcaroras, a people driven by the Carolinians from the frontiers of Virginia, conſiſted of five nations, viz. the Mohaws, Oneidas, Senecas, Onondagas,

Onondagas, and Cayuagas. The alliance and trade of these six nations, inhabiting the territory west of Albany to the distance of more than 200 miles, though much courted by the French of Canada, have been almost uninterruptedly enjoyed by the English.

In 1684, the French attempted the destruction of these Indians, because they interrupted their trade with the more distant tribes, called the Far Nations. The Seneca Indians interrupted this trade, because the French supplied the Miamies, with whom they were then at war, with arms and amunition,

To effect the destruction of the Indians great preparations were made by the French. But famine and sickness prevailing among them the expedition proved fruitless. Four years after this, 1200 Indians attacked Montreal, burnt many houses, and put 1000 of the inhabitants to the sword.

In 1689, Colonel Dongan, the governor, being called home by king James, and a general disaffection to Government prevailing at New York, one Jacob Leisler took possession of the garrison, for king William and queen Mary, and assumed the supreme power over the province. His reduction of Albany, held by others for William, and the confiscation of the estates of his opponents, was an impolitic measure; and sowed the seeds of mutual animosity, which for a long time greatly embarrassed the public affairs.

The French, in 1689, in order to detach the six nations from the British interest, sent out several parties against the English colonies. One of the parties, consisting of about 200 French, and some of the Caghnuaga Indians, commanded by D'Ailldebout, De Mantel, and Lemoyne, was intended for New York. But by the advice of the Indians, they determined first to attack Skenectady.

For this place they accordingly directed their course, and after twenty days march, in the depth of winter, through the snow, carrying their provisions on their backs, they arrived in the neighbourhood of Skenectady, on the 8th of February, 1690. Such was the extreme distress to which they were reduced, that they had thoughts of surrendering themselves prisoners of war. But their scouts, who were a day or two in the village entirely unsuspected, returned with such encouraging accounts of the absolute security of the people, that the enemy determined on the attack. They entered, on Saturday night about eleven o'clock, at the gates, which were found unshut; and, that every house might be invested at the same time, divided into small parties of six or seven men. The inhabitants were in a profound sleep, and unalarmed, until their doors were broke open. Never were people in a more wretched consternation. Before they were risen from their beds, the enemy entered their houses, and began the perpetration of the most inhuman barbarities. No tongue can express the cruelties that were committed. The whole village was instantly in a blaze. Women with child ripped open, and their infants cast into the flames, or dashed against the posts of the doors. Sixty persons perished in the massacre, and twenty-seven were carried into captivity. The rest fled naked towards Albany, through a deep snow which fell that very night in a terrible storm; and 25 of the fugitives lost their limbs in the flight, through the severity of the frost. The news of this dreadful tragedy reached Albany, about break of day, and universal dread seized the inhabitants of that city,

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the enemy being reported to be one thouſand four hundred ſtrong. A party of horſe was immediately diſpatched to Skenectady, and a few Mohawks then in town, fearful of being intercepted, were with difficulty ſent to appriſe their own caſtles.

The Mohawks were unacquainted with this bloody ſcene until two days after it happened, our meſſengers being ſcarcely able to travel through the great depth of the ſnow. The enemy, in the mean time, pillaged the town of Skenectady until noon the next day; and then went off with their plunder, and about forty of their beſt horſes. The reſt, with all the cattle they could find, lay ſlaughtered in the ſtreets.

Upon the arrival of a governor at New-York, commiſſioned by the king, Leiſler imprudently refuſed to ſurrender the garriſon, for which he and his ſon were condemned to death, as guilty of high treaſon.

The whole province of New-York was originally ſettled by non-epiſcopalians, chiefly by preſbyterians, except a few epiſcopal families in the city of New-York. In 1693, Col. Fletcher, then governor of the province, projected the ſcheme of a general tax for building churches, and ſupporting epiſcopal miniſters, and artfully effected his deſign in part. This overture laid the foundation for a diſpute between the preſbyterians and epiſcopalians, which, until the revolution, was maintained on both ſides with great warmth and animoſity. Several of the governors, particularly the infamous * Lord Cornbury, ſhewed great partiality to the epiſcopalians, and perſecuted the preſbyterians.

To prevent the Roman Catholic miſſionaries from Canada from influencing the Indian allies of the province to renounce their allegiance to the Britiſh crown, under the pretext of religion, the legiſlature of the province, in July 1700, paſſed a law, prohibiting Jeſuits and Popiſh Prieſts

* *The following extract from the Hiſtory of New-York, will fully juſtify this epithet. Speaking of Lord Cornbury, the hiſtorian ſays,* 'His lordſhip's *ſenſe of honour and juſtice was as weak and indelicate, as his bigotry was rampant and uncontroulable: and hence we find him guilty of an act complicated of a number of vices, which no man could have perpetrated without violence to the very ſlighteſt remains of generoſity and juſtice. When his excellency retired to Jamaica, on account of the Great Sickneſs in* 170-, *one Hubbard, the preſbyterian miniſter, lived in the beſt houſe in the town. His lordſhip begged the loan of it for the uſe of his own family, and the clergyman put himſelf to no ſmall inconveniencies to favour the governor's requeſt; but in return for the generous benefaction, his lordſhip perfidiouſly delivered the parſonage-houſe into the hands of the epiſcopal party, and encouraged one Cardwel, the ſheriff, a mean fellow, who afterwards put an end to his own life, to ſeize upon the glebe, which he ſurveyed into lots, and farmed for the benefit of the epiſcopal church. Theſe tyrannical meaſures juſtly inflamed the indignation of the injured ſufferers, and that again the more embittered his lordſhip againſt them. They reſented, and he perſecuted: nor did he confine his pious rage to the people of Jamaica. He deteſted all who were of the ſame denomination; nay, averſe to every ſect except his own, he inſiſted that neither the miniſters nor ſchoolmaſters of the Dutch, the moſt numerous perſuaſion in the province, had a right to preach or inſtruct without his gubernatorial licence; and ſome of them tamely ſubmitted to his unauthoritative rule.*'

from

from exerciſing their office in the province, on pain of perpetual impriſonment. If any one ſhould eſcape from priſon, and be afterwards taken, he was to be put to death. This law, however vindicable in a political view, is certainly to be condemned on the principle of religion, as it favoured as highly of perſecution as any law ever paſſed in New-England. The truth is, the legiſlators in both inſtances intended to prevent political evils, but their laws for this end were highly exceptionable. The offenders againſt the public peace ought to have been treated in a civil, not in a religious capacity. Civil and eccleſiaſtical power are intirely diſtinct, and never ought to be blended. The religious perſecutions, which have proved the deſtruction of thouſands of pious people, may, in a great meaſure, be aſcribed to the undue interference of civil with eccleſiaſtical authority.

This law againſt the Roman Catholics remained unrepealed (though it was never enforced) until the revolution.

In 1709, a vigorous expedition was meditated againſt Canada, in making preparation for which, this province expended above £. 20,000; but the expected aſſiſtance of Britain failing, it was never proſecuted. Soon after, Col. Schuyler, who had been very influential with the Indians, went to England with five ſachems, who were introduced into the preſence of Queen Anne. The object of this viſit was to ſtimulate the miniſtry to the reduction of Canada.

In 1711, a conſiderable fleet was ſent over for that purpoſe, but eight tranſports being caſt away on the coaſt, the reſt of the fleet and troops returned with making any attempt to reduce Canada.

In 1710, Governor Hunter brought over with him about 3000 Palatines, who, the year before, had fled to England from the rage of perſecution in Germany. Many of theſe people ſettled in the city of New-York; others ſettled on a tract of ſeveral thouſand acres in the manor of Livingſton; and ſome went to Penſylvania, and were inſtrumental in inducing thouſands of their countrymen to emigrate to that province.

The prohibition of the ſale of Indian goods to the French, in 1720, excited the clamour of the merchants at New-York, whoſe intereſt was affected by it. The meaſure was undoubtedly a politic one; and the reaſons for it were theſe: The French by this trade were ſupplied with articles which were wanted by the Indians. This prevented the Indians from coming to Albany, and drew them to Montreal; and they being employed by the French, as carriers, became attached to them from intereſt. About the ſame time, a trading-houſe was erected by the Engliſh at Oſwego, on Lake Ontario; and another by the French at Niagara.

In 1729, the act prohibiting the trade between Albany and Montreal was imprudently repealed by the king. This naturally tended to undermine the trade at Oſwego, and to advance the French commerce of Niagara; and at the ſame time to alienate the affections of the Indians from Britain. Not long after this, the French were ſuffered to erect a fortreſs at Lake Champlain. To prevent the ill conſequences of this, a ſcheme was projected to ſettle the lands near Lake George with loyal proteſtant Highlanders from Scotland. A tract of thirty thouſand acres was accordingly promiſed to Captain Campbell, who, at his own expence, tranſported eighty-

eighty-three Proteſtant families to New-York. But through the ſordid views of ſome perſons in power, who aimed at a ſhare in the intended grant, the ſettlement was never made.

We have already mentioned, in the hiſtory of the United States, ſome of the moſt important events that have taken place in this ſtate ſince the revolution. To be more particular is inconſiſtent with my deſign. I ſhall conclude this hiſtory, with a liſt of the governors of New York, after having mentioned that,

In 1787, the legiſlature of this ſtate ceded to the commonwealth of Maſſachuſetts, all the lands, with their juriſdiction, weſt of a meridian that ſhall be drawn from a point in the north boundary line of Pennſylvania, eighty two miles weſt from the Delaware; (excepting one mile along the eaſt ſide of Niagara river) and alſo ten townſhips between the Chenengo and Owegy rivers, reſerving the juriſdiction to the ſtate of New-York. This ceſſion was made to ſatisfy a claim of Maſſachuſetts, founded upon their original charter.

A Liſt of Governors *from the year* 1664 *to the preſent time.*

Names of Governors.	*Began to govern.*	*Names of Governors.*	*Began to govern.*
Nicolls	1664	Burnet	1720
Lovelace	1668	Montgomerie	1728
Androſs	1674	Vandam	1731
Brockhuſt	1682	Coſby	1732
Dongan	1683	Clarke	1735
Slaughter	1690	Clinton	1743
Ingoldſby	1691	Oſborn	1753
Fletcher	1692	De Lancey	1753
Bellemont	1698	Sir Charles Hardy	1755
Nanfan	1699	De Lancey	1757
Bellemont	1700	Colden (Preſident)	1760
Depeyſter	1700	Monckton	1761
Smith	1700	Colden	1763
Nanfan	1701	Monckton	1762
Cornbury	1702	Colden	1763
Lovelace	1708	Sir Henry Moore	1765
Schuyler	1709	Colden	1769
Ingoldſby	1709	Dunmore	1770
Beckman	1710	Tryon	1771
Hunter	1719	Clinton	1778

NEW JERSEY.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.
Length 160
Breadth 52
} Between { 39° and 41° 24′ North Latitude.
The body of the ſtate lies between the meridian of Philadelphia, and 1° Eaſt Longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED eaſt, by Hudſon's river and the ſea; ſouth, by the ſea; weſt, by Delaware bay and river, which divide it from the ſtates of Delaware and Pennſylvania; north, by a line drawn from the mouth of Mahakkamak river, in latitude 41° 24′ to a point in Hudſon's river in latitude 41°. Containing about 8320 ſquare miles, equal to 5,324,800 acres.

Bays, Ponds, Rivers, &c.] New-Jerſey is waſhed on the eaſt and ſouth eaſt by Hudſon's river and the ocean; and on the weſt by the river Delaware.

The moſt remarkable bays are, Arthur Kull, or Newark bay, formed by the union of Poſaik and Hakkenſak rivers. This bay opens to the right and left, and embraces Staten-Iſland. There is a long bay, formed by a beach, four or five miles from the ſhore, extending along the coaſt north-eaſt and ſouth-eaſt, from Manaſquand river, in Monmouth county, almoſt to Cape May. Through this beach are a number of inlets, by which the bay communicates with the ocean.

On the top of a mountain, in Morris county, is a lake or pond, three miles in length, and from a mile to a mile and an half in breadth, from which proceeds a continual ſtream. It is in ſome places deep. The water is of a ſea-green colour; but when taken up in a tumbler, is, like the water of the ocean, clear and of a cryſtaline colour.

The rivers in this ſtate, though not large, are numerous. A traveller, in paſſing the common road from New-York to Philadelphia, croſſes three conſiderable rivers, viz. the Hakkenſak and Poſaik between Bergen and Newark, and the Raritan by Brunſwick. The Hakkenſak riſes in Bergen county, runs a ſouthwardly courſe, and empties into Newark bay.—At the ferry, near its mouth, it is 460 yards wide, and is navigable fifteen miles.

Poſaik is a very crooked river. It riſes in a large ſwamp at Morris county. Its general courſe is from W. N. W. to E. S. E until it mingles with the Hakkenſak at the head of Newark bay It is navigable about ten miles, and is 230 yards wide at the ferry. The cataract in this river is one of the greateſt natural curioſities in the ſtate. The river is about forty yards wide, and moves in a ſlow, gentle current, until coming within a ſhort diſtance of a deep cleft in a rock, which croſſes the channels, it deſcends and falls above ſeventy feet perpendicularly, in one entire ſheet. One end of the cleft, which was evidently made by ſome violent convulſion in nature, is cloſed; at the other, the water ruſhes out with incredible

incredible ſwiftneſs, forming an acute angle with its former direction, and is received into a large baſon, whence it takes a winding courſe through the rocks, and ſpreads into a broad, ſmooth ſtream. The cleft is from four to twelve feet broad. The falling of the water occaſions a cloud of vapours to ariſe, which, by floating amidſt the ſun beams, preſents to the view rainbows, that add beauty to the tremendous ſcene. The weſtern bank of this river, between Newark and the falls, affords one of the pleaſanteſt roads for a party of pleaſure in New-Jerſey. The bank being high, gives the traveller an elevated and extenſive view of the oppoſite ſhore, which is low and fertile, forming a landſcape picturesque and beautiful. Many handſome country-ſeats adorn the ſides of this river; and there are elegant ſituations for more. Gentlemen of fortune might here diſplay their taſte to advantage. The fiſh of various kinds with which this river abounds, while they would furniſh the table with an agreeable repaſt, would afford the ſportſman an innocent and manly amuſement.

Raritan river is formed by two conſiderable ſtreams, called the north and ſouth branches; one of which has its ſource in Morris, the other in Hunterdon county. It paſſes by Brunſwick and Amboy, and mingles with the waters of the Arthur Kull ſound, and helps to form the fine harbour of Amboy. It is a mile wide at its mouth, 250 yards at Brunſwick, and is navigable about ſixteen miles. At Raritan Hills, through which this river paſſes, is a ſmall caſcade, where the water falls fifteen or twenty feet, very romantically between two rocks. Oppoſite the lower part of the town of Brunſwick, is a remarkable declivity in the bed of the river, not perceptible however in its current. Below this declivity, a twenty gun ſhip may ride ſecurely at any time of tide, while no farther up than oppoſite the main-ſtreet of the town, the river is fordable with horſes and carriages at low water. The tide, however, riſes ſo high, that large ſhallops paſs a mile above the ford; ſo that it is no uncommon thing to ſee veſſels of conſiderable burden riding at anchor, and a number of large river craft lying above, ſome dry and others on their beam ends for want of water, within gunſhot of each other.

Beſides theſe are Ceſarea river, or Cohanſey creek, which riſes in Salem county, and is about thirty miles in length, and navigable for veſſels of an hundred tons to Bridgetown, twenty miles from its mouth.

Mullicas river divides the counties of Glouceſter and Burlington, and is navigable twenty miles for veſſels of ſixty tons.

Maurice river riſes in Glouceſter county, runs ſouthwardly about forty miles, and is navigable for veſſels of an hundred tons, fifteen miles, and for ſhallops ten miles farther.

Alloway creek, in the county of Salem, is navigable ſixteen miles for ſhallops, with ſeveral obſtructions of drawbridges. Ancocus creek, in Burlington county, is alſo navigable ſixteen miles. Theſe, with many other ſmaller ſtreams, empty into the Delaware, and carry down the produce which their fertile banks and the neighbouring country afford.

That part of the ſtate which borders on the ſea, is indented with a great number of ſmall rivers and creeks, ſuch as Great Egg harbour, and Little Egg harbour rivers, Naveſink, Shark, Matiricung, and Forked rivers, which, as the country is flat, are navigable for ſmall craft, almoſt to their ſources.

Civil

Civil Divisions, Population, &c.] New-Jersey is divided into 13 counties, which are subdivided into 94 townships or precincts, as follows:

TABLE.

	Counties.	Principal Towns.	Length.	breadth.	No. White Inhabitants.	Do. Black.
These seven counties lie from S. to N. on Delaware river. Cape May and Gloucester extend across to the sea.	Cape May.	None.	30	9	2093	138
	Cumberland.	Bridgetown.	50	20	5000	100
	Salem.	Salem.				
	Gloucester.	Woodbury and Gloucester.	30	22		
	Burlington.	Burlington and Bordentown.	60	30	15,500	520
	Hunterdon.	Trenton.	37	12	17,130	1233
	Suffex.	Newtown.				
These four counties lie from N to S. on the eastern side of the state.	Bergen.	Hakkensak.				
	Effex.	Newark and Elizabeth-Town.				
	Middlesex.	Amboy and Brunswick.				
	Monmouth.	Shrewsbury and Freehold.	80	30	13,216	1492
Inland.	Somerset.	Boundbrook.				
	Morris.	Morristown.	25	20	12,925	491
Total						

In 1784, a census of the inhabitants was made by order of the legislature, when they amounted to 140,435, of which 10,501 were blacks. Of these blacks, 1939 only were slaves; so that the proportion of slaves to the whole of the inhabitants in the state, is as one to seventy six. The population for every square mile is eighteen.

In

In 1738, the number of inhabitants in New-Jerſey was 47,369; of which 3,981 were ſlaves. In 1745, there were 61,403 inhabitants in the colony, of which 4606 were ſlaves. The average annual increaſe of inhabitants in New-Jerſey ſince the year 1738, has been 2219, excluſive of emigrations.

No. Slaves.	Acres of improved Land.	Do. unimproved.	No. Horſes.	No. Cattle.	No. Militia.	No. Townſhips	No. Preſb. Con.	Do. Baptiſt	Do. Friends.	Do. other denom.	No. dwelling-houſes.
33	36,160	28,023	508	2417	450	3	1	2	2		420
30	84,582	74,543	1736	5195	1000	7	3	4	1	2	1200
41	119,297	36,502	2922	6687		9		3			
46	156,979	134,049	3261	7736	2000	9	6		6	4	
53	194,600	55,425	4657	9820	3000	11	1	4	15	1	2600
263	267,192	16,116	7613	10952		10	9	2	2	5	
82	140,055	29,628	5460	9048		12		2			
317	130,848	14,398	4221	6400		6					
185	109,617	9,418	3985	8080		3		3			
210	166,149	10,792	4036	8308		7		4			
264	197,065	42,868	4505	11634	1600	6	6	4	3	5	
318	173,224	2,763	4707	7564		6		1			
117	156,809	30,429	4817	8374		5	9	1	1	3	
1959	2,032,587	484,954	52,488	102,221		94		30			

Since the peace of 1783, great numbers of the inhabitants have emigrated to the country weſt of the Allegany Mountains. The increaſe of inhabitants in the ſtate muſt be ſmall ſo long as theſe emigrations ſhall continue;

continue; and they will probably continue as long as there are unsettled lands with the limits of the United States, on which emigrants can more easily subsist by agriculture, than in their native state.

Face of the Country, Mountains, Soil and Productions.] The counties of Sussex, Morris, and the northern part of Bergen, are mountainous. The *South mountain*, which is one ridge of the great *Allegany range*, crosses this state in about latitude 41°. This mountain embosoms such amazing quantities of iron ore, that it may not improperly be called the *Iron Mountain*. The Kittatinny ridge passes through this state north of the South mountain. Several spurs from these mountains, are projected in a southern direction. One passes between Springfield at Chatham. Another runs west of it, by Morristown, Baskinridge and Vealtown. The interior country is, in general, agreeably variegated with hills and vallies. The southern counties which lie along the sea-coast, are pretty uniformly flat and sandy. The noted Highlands of Navesink and Center Hill, are almost the only hills within the distance of many miles from the sea-coast. The Highlands of Navesink are on the sea-coast near Sandy-Hook, in the township of Middletown, and are the first lands that are discovered by mariners as they come upon the coast. They rise about 600 feet above the surface of the water

As much as five-eighths of most of the southern counties, or one-fourth of the whole state, is a sandy barren, unfit for cultivation. The land on the sea-coast in this, like that in the more southern states, has every appearance of *made ground*. The soil is generally a light land; and by digging, on an average, about fifty feet below rhe surface, (which can be done, even at the distance of twenty or thirty miles from the sea, without any impediment from rocks or stones) you come to salt marsh. The gentleman who gave this information adds, 'I have seen an oyster-shell that would hold a pint, which was dug out of the marsh, at fifty feet deep in digging a well.' 'About seven years since,' continues my informer, 'at Long Branch, in the county of Monmouth, in the banks of the Atlantic, which were greatly torn by a great rise of the sea in a violent easterly storm, was discovered the skeleton of some huge carnivorous animal. The country people who first saw it had so little curiosity, as to suffer it to be wholly destroyed, except a jaw tooth which I saw. This was about two and an half inches wide, five inches long, and as many deep. The person who helped to take it out of the bank, assured me there was one rib seven feet four inches, and another four feet long.'——To account for these curious phenomena is not my business, This is left for the ingenious naturalist, who has abilities and leisure to compare facts and appearances of this kind, and who probably may thence draw conclusions which may throw much light on the ancient history of this country.

This state has all the varieties of soil from the worst to the best kind. It has a greater proportion of *barrens* than any of the states, if we except North-Carolina; and even than this, if we include the *premature State of Franklin*. The good land on the southern counties lies principally on the banks of the rivers and creeks. The soil, on these banks, is generally a stiff clay; and while in a state of nature, produces various species of oak, hickory, poplar, chesnut, ash, gum, &c. The *barrens* produce little else but

but ſhrub oaks and white and yellow pines. There are large bodies of ſalt meadow along the Delaware, which afford a plentiful paſture for cattle in ſummer, and hay in winter; but the flies and muſketoes frequent theſe meadows in large ſwarms, in the months of June, July and Auguſt, and prove very troubleſome both to man and beaſt. In Glouceſter and Cumberland counties are ſeveral large tracts of banked meadow. Their vicinity to Philadelphia renders them highly valuable. Along the ſea-coaſt the inhabitants ſubſiſt principally by feeding cattle on the ſalt meadows, and by the fiſh of various kinds, ſuch as rock, drum, ſhad, perch, &c. black turtle, crabs and oyſters, which the ſea, rivers, and creeks afford in great abundance. They raiſe Indian corn, rye, potatoes, &c. but not for exportation. Their ſwamps afford lumber, which is eaſily conveyed to a good market.

In the hilly and mountainous parts of the ſtate, which are not too rocky for cultivation, the ſoil is of a ſtronger kind, and covered in its natural ſtate with ſtately oaks, hickories, cheſnuts, &c. &c. and when cultivated produces wheat, rye, Indian corn, buck-wheat, oats, barley, flax, and fruits of all kinds common to the climate. The land in this hilly country is good for grazing, and the farmers feed great numbers of cattle for New-York and Philadelphia markets; and many of them keep large dairies.

The orchards in many parts of the ſtate equal any in the United States, and their cyder is ſaid, and not without reaſon, to be the beſt in the world. It is pretty certain that it cannot be ſurpaſſed in goodneſs. It is only to be regretted that too many of the inhabitants make too free a uſe of it, to the injury not only of their healths, but of their reputations; and that the pernicious practice of diſtilling it, and thereby rendering it ſtill more prejudicial, is prevailing. It is pity that the bleſſings of bounteous heaven ſhould thus, by their abuſe, be turned into curſes.

The markets of New-York and Philadelphia receive a very conſiderable proportion of their ſupplies from the contiguous parts of New-Jerſey. And it is worthy of remark that theſe contiguous parts are exceedingly well calculated, as to the nature and fertility of their ſoils, to afford theſe ſupplies; and the intervention of a great number of navigable rivers and creeks, renders it very convenient to market their produce. Theſe ſupplies conſiſt of vegetables of many kinds, apples, pears, peaches, plumbs, ſtrawberries, cherries, and other fruits—cyder in large quantities, and of the beſt quality, butter, cheeſe, beef, pork, mutton, and the leſſer meats.

Trade] The trade of this ſtate is carried on almoſt ſolely with and from thoſe two great commercial cities, New-York on one ſide, and Philadelphia on the other; though it wants not good ports of its own. Several attempts have been made by the legiſlature, to ſecure to the ſtate its own natural advantages, by granting extraordinary privileges to merchants, who would ſettle at Amboy and Burlington, two very commodious ports. But the people having long been accuſtomed to ſend their produce to the markets of Philadelphia and New-York, and of courſe having their correſpondencies eſtabliſhed, and their mode of dealing fixed, they find it difficult to turn their trade from the old channel.

Beſides,

Beſides, in theſe large cities, where are ſo many able merchants, and ſo many wants to be ſupplied, credits are more eaſily obtained, and a better and quicker market is found for produce, than could be expected in towns leſs populous and flouriſhing. Theſe and other cauſes of the ſame kind, have, hitherto, rendered abortive the encouragements held out by the legiſlature.

New-York and Pennſylvania, however, not contented with the privilege of being the factors and carriers for this ſtate, charge it with the ſame duties they do their own citizens. This heavy and unreaſonable tax upon the people, together with the loſs they ſuſtain in dealing with a depreciated paper currency, occaſions the balance of trade to be againſt the ſtate in almoſt every reſpect.

The articles exported, beſides thoſe already mentioned, are, wheat, flour, horſes, live cattle, hams, which are celebrated as being the beſt in the world, lumber, flax-ſeed, leather, iron in great quantities, in pigs and bars, and formerly copper ore was reckoned among their moſt valuable exports; but the mines have not been worked ſince the commencement of the late war.

The imports conſiſt chiefly of dry and Weſt-India goods, and teas from the Eaſt-Indies.

Manufactures and Agriculture.] The manufactures of this ſtate have hitherto been very inconſiderable, not ſufficient to ſupply its own conſumption, if we except the articles of iron, nails and leather. A ſpirit of induſtry and improvement, particularly in manufactures, has however greatly increaſed the two laſt years Moſt of the families in the country, and many in the populous towns, are clothed in ſtrong, decent homeſpun: and it is a happy circumſtance for our country, that this plain AMERICAN dreſs is every day growing more faſhionable, not only in this, but in all the eaſtern and middle ſtates.

In Trenton and Newark, are ſeveral very valuable tan-yards, where leather, in large quantities, and of an excellent quality, is made and exported to the neighbouring markets. Steel was manufactured at Trenton in time of the war, but not conſiderably ſince. In Glouceſter county is a glaſs-houſe. Paper-mills, and nail manufactories, are erected and worked to good advantage in many parts of the ſtate. Wheat alſo is manufactured into flour to good account, in the weſtern counties, where it is the ſtaple commodity. But the iron manufacture is, of all others, the greateſt ſource of wealth to the ſtate. Iron works are erected in Glouceſter, Burlington, Morris, and other counties. The mountains in the county of Morris, give riſe to a number of ſtreams neceſſary and convenient for theſe works, and at the ſame time furniſh a copious ſupply of wood and ore of a ſuperior quality. In this county alone are no leſs than ſeven rich iron mines, from which might be taken ore ſufficient to ſupply the United States; and to work it into iron are two furnaces, two rolling and ſlitting mills, and about thirty forges, containing from two to four fires each. Theſe works produce annually about 540 tons of bar iron, 800 tons of pigs, beſides large quantities of hollow ware, ſheet iron, and nail rods. In the whole ſtate, it is ſuppoſed there is yearly made about 1200 tons of bar-iron, 1200 do. of pigs, 80 do. of nail rods, exclunue of hollow ware, and various other caſtings, of which vaſt quantities are made.

Early

Early in the late war, a powder-mill was erected in Morriſtown by Col. Ford, who was enabled, by the ample ſupply of ſaltpetre furniſhed by the patriotic inhabitants, to make a conſiderable quantity of that valuable and neceſſary article, at a time when it was moſt needed; and when the enemy were at the door, it afforded a timely ſupply.

Although the bulk of the inhabitants in this ſtate are farmers, yet agriculture has not been improved (a few inſtances excepted) to that degree which, from long experience, we might rationally expect, and which the fertility of the ſoil, in many places, ſeems to encourage. A great part of the inhabitants are Dutch, who, although they are in general neat and induſtrious farmers, have very little enterprize, and ſeldom adopt any new improvements in huſbandry, becauſe, through habits, and want of education to expand and liberalize their minds, they think their old modes of tilling the beſt. Indeed this is the caſe with the great body of the common people, and proves almoſt an inſurmountable obſtacle to agricultural improvements.

Mines and Minerals.] This ſtate emboſoms vaſt quantities of iron and copper ore. The iron ore is of two kinds; one is capable of being manufactured into malleable iron, and is found in mountains and in low barrens; the other, called *bog-ore*, grows* in rich bottoms; and yields iron of a hard, brittle quality, and is commonly manufactured into hollow ware, and uſed ſometimes inſtead of ſtone in building.

A number of copper mines have been diſcovered in different parts of the ſtate. One is in Bergen county, which when worked by the Schuylers, (to whom it belonged) was conſiderably productive; but they have for many years been neglected.

The following account of a copper mine at New-Brunſwick, is given by a gentleman of diſtinction, well informed upon the ſubject.

"About the years 1748, 1749, 1750, ſeveral lumps of virgin copper from five to thirty pounds weight, (in the whole upwards of 200 pounds) were ploughed up in a field, belonging to Philip French, Eſq; within a quarter of a mile of New-Brunſwick. This induced Mr. Elias Boudinot, of the city of Philadelphia, to take a leaſe of Mr. French of this land, for ninety-nine years, in order to ſearch for copper ore, a body of which he concluded muſt be contained in this hill. He took in ſeveral partners, and about the year 1751 opened a pit in the low grounds, about 2 or 300 yards from the river. He was led to this ſpot by a friend of his, who, a little before, paſſing by at three o'clock in the morning, obſerved a body of flame ariſe out of the ground, as large as a common ſized man, and ſoon after die away. He drove a ſtake on the ſpot. About fifteen feet deep, Mr. Boudinot came on a vein of a bluiſh ſtone, about two feet thick, between two perpendicular looſe bodies of red rock, covered with a ſheet of pure virgin copper, a little thicker than gold leaf. This bluiſh ſtone was filled with ſparks of virgin copper, very much like copper filings, and now and then a large lump of virgin copper from five to thirty

Some perſons perhaps will be ſurpriſed at my ſaying that ore grows, *but that it does in fact grow is well known to many curious naturaliſts who have carefully obſerved it.*

pounds weight. He followed this vein almoſt thirty feet, when, the water coming in very faſt, the expence became too great for the company's capital. A ſtamping-mill was erected, when by reducing the bluiſh ſtone to a powder, and waſhing it in large tubs, the ſtone was carried off, and the fine copper preſerved, by which means many tons of the pureſt copper was ſent to England without ever paſſing through the fire; but labour was too high to render it poſſible for the company to proceed. Sheets of copper about the thickneſs of two pennies, and three feet ſquare, on an average, have been taken from between the rocks, within four feet of the ſurface, in ſeveral parts of the hill. At about fifty or ſixty feet deep, they came to a body of fine ſolid ore, in the midſt of this bluiſh vein, but between rocks of a white flinty ſpar, which, however, was worked out in a few days. Theſe works lie now wholly neglected, although the vein when left was richer than ever it had been. There was alſo a very rich vein of copper ore diſcovered at Rocky Hill, in Somerſet county, which has alſo been neglected from the heavy expence attending the working of it. There have been various attempts made to ſearch the hills beyond Boundbrook, known by the name of Van Horne's Mountain, but for the ſame reaſon it is now neglected. This mountain diſcovers the greateſt appearance of copper ore, of any place in the ſtate. It may be picked up on the ſurface of many parts of it. A ſmelting furnace was erected, before the revolution, in the neighbourhood, by two Germans, who were making very conſiderable profit on their work, until the Britiſh deſtroyed it in the beginning of the war. The inhabitants made it worth their while, by collecting the ore from the ſurface, and by partially digging into the hill, to ſupply the furnace. Beſides, a company opened a very large ſhaft on the ſide of the hill, from which alſo a great deal of valuable ore and ſome virgin copper were taken. Two lumps of virgin copper were found here in the year 1754, which weighed 1900 pounds."

Curious Springs.] In the upper part of the county of Morris, is a cold mineral ſpring, which is frequented by valetudinarians, and its waters have been uſed with very conſiderable ſucceſs. In the townſhip of Hanover, in this county, on a ridge of hills, are a number of wells, which regularly ebb and flow about ſix feet twice in every twenty-four hours. Theſe wells are nearly forty miles from the ſea, in a ſtraight line. In the county of Cape May, is a ſpring of freſh water, which boils up from the bottom of a ſalt water creek, which runs nearly dry at low tide; but at flood tide, is covered with water directly from the ocean to the depth of three or four feet; yet in this ſituation, by letting down a bottle well corked, through the ſalt water into the ſpring, and immediately drawing the cork with a ſtring prepared for the purpoſe, it may be drawn up full of fine, untainted freſh water. There are ſprings of this kind in other parts of the ſtate. In the county of Hunterdon, near the top of Muſkonetkony mountain, is a noted medicinal ſpring, to which invalids reſort from every quarter. It iſſues from the ſide of the mountain in a very romantic manner, and is conveyed into an artificial reſervoir for the accommodation of thoſe who wiſh to bathe in, as well as to drink, the waters. It is a ſtrong chalybeate, and very cold. Theſe waters have been uſed with very conſiderable ſucceſs; but perhaps the exerciſe neceſſary to get to them,

them, and the purity of the air in this lofty ſituation, aided by a lively imagination, have as great efficacy in curing the patient as the waters.

Caves, Mountains, &c.] In the townſhip of Shrewſbury, in Monmouth county, on the ſide of a branch of Naveſink river, is a remarkable cave, in which there are three rooms. The cave is about thirty feet long, and fifteen feet broad. Each of the rooms is arched. The centre of the arch is about five feet from the bottom of the cave; the ſides not more than two and an half. The mouth of the cave is ſmall; the bottom is a looſe ſand; and the arch is formed in a ſoft rock, through the pores of which the moiſture is ſlowly exudated, and falls in drops on the ſand below.

On Sandy Hook, about a mile from the light-houſe, is a monument, which was erected to commemorate a very melancholy event that took place juſt at the cloſe of the late war. The following inſcription, which is upon a marble plate on one ſide of the monument, will afford ſufficient information of the matter.

"Here lies the remains of the Honourable Hamilton Douglaſs Halliburton, ſon of Sholto Charles Earl of Morton, and heir of the ancient family of Halliburton of Pitcurr in Scotland; who periſhed on this coaſt with twelve more young gentlemen, and one common ſailor, in the ſpirited diſcharge of duty, the 30th or 31ſt of December, 1783: Born October the 10th, 1763; a youth who, in contempt of hardſhip and danger, though poſſeſſed of an ample fortune, ſerved ſeven years in the Britiſh navy with a manly courage. He ſeemed to be deſerving of a better fate. To his dear memory, and that of his unfortunate companions, this monumental ſtone is erected by his unhappy mother, Katharine, Counteſs Dowager of Morton.

JAMES CHAMPION, Lieutenant of Marines.
ALEXANDER JOHNSTON,
GEORGE PADDY,
ROBERT HEYWOOD, } Midſhipmen.

CHARLES GASCOIGNE,
ANDREW HAMILTON,
WILLIAM SCOTT,
DAVID REDDIE, } Young gentlemen
WILLIAM TOMLINSON,
JOHN M'CHAIR,
WILLIAM SPRAY,
ROBERT WOOD.

GEORGE TOWERS, Sailor.

Caſt away in purſuit of deſerters; all found dead; and buried in this grave.

Of his Britannic Majeſty's ſhip Aſſiſtance.
Mr. HALLIBURTON, Firſt-Lieutenant."

Character, Manners, and Cuſtoms.] Many circumſtances concur to render theſe various in different parts of the ſtate. The inhabitants are a collection of Low Dutch, Germans, Engliſh, Scotch, Iriſh, and New-Englanders, or their deſcendents. National attachment and mutual convenience have generally induced theſe ſeveral kinds of people to ſettle together in a body—and in this way their peculiar national manners, cuſtoms, and character, are ſtill preſerved, eſpecially among the lower claſs of people, who have little intercourſe with any but thoſe of their own nation. Religion, although its tendency is to unite people in thoſe things that are

eſſential to happineſs, occaſions wide differences as to manners, cuſtoms, and even character. The Preſbyterian, the Quaker, the Epiſcopalian, the Baptiſt, the German and Low Dutch Calviniſt, the Methodiſt and the Moravian, have each their diſtinguiſhing characteriſtics, either in their worſhip, their diſcipline, or their dreſs. There is ſtill another very perceptible characteriſtical difference, diſtinct from either of the others, which ariſes from the intercourſe of the inhabitants with different ſtates. The people in Weſt-Jerſey trade to Philadelphia, and of courſe imitate their faſhions, and imbibe their manners. The inhabitants of Eaſt-Jerſey trade to New-York, and regulate their faſhions and manners according to thoſe of New-York. So that the difference in regard to faſhions and manners between Eaſt and Weſt-Jerſey, is nearly as great as between New-York and Philadelphia.—Add to all theſe the differences common in all countries, ariſing from the various occupations of men, ſuch as the Civilian, the Divine, the Lawyer, the Phyſician, the Mechanic, the clowniſh, the decent, and the reſpectable Farmer, all of whom have different purſuits, or purſue the ſame thing differently, and of courſe muſt have a different ſet of ideas and manners;—when we take into view all theſe differences, (and all theſe differences exiſt in New-Jerſey, and many of them in all the other ſtates) it cannot be expected that many general obſervations will apply. It may, however, in truth be ſaid, that the people of New-Jerſey are generally induſtrious, frugal and hoſpitable. There are comparatively but few men of learning in the ſtate, nor can it be ſaid that the people in general have a taſte for the ſciences. The lower claſs, in which may be included three-fifths of the inhabitants of the whole ſtate, are ignorant, and are criminally neglectful in the education of their children. There are, however, a number of gentlemen of the firſt rank in abilities and learning in the civil offices of the ſtate, and in the ſeveral learned profeſſions.

It is not the buſineſs of a geographer to compliment the ladies; nor would we be thought to do it when we ſay, that there is at leaſt as great a number of induſtrious, diſcreet, amiable, genteel and handſome women in New-Jerſey, in proportion to the number of inhabitants, as in any of the thirteen ſtates. Whether an adequate degree of ſolid mental improvement, anſwering to the perſonal and other uſeful qualities we have mentioned, is to be found among the fair of this ſtate, is a more weighty concern. Perhaps it may be ſaid with juſtice, that in general, though there is not the ſame univerſal taſte for knowledge, diſcernible among the ladies here, as in ſome other of the ſtates, owing in a great meaſure to the ſtate of ſociety, and the means of improvement, there are, however, many ſignal inſtances of improved talents among them, not ſurpaſſed by thoſe of their ſiſters in any of the other ſtates.

Religion.] There are, in this ſtate, about fifty Preſbyterian congregations, ſubject to the care of three Preſbyteries, viz. that of New-York, of New-Brunſwick, and Philadelphia. A part of the charge of New-York and Philadelphia Preſbyteries lies in New-Jerſey, and part in their own reſpective ſtates. To ſupply theſe congregations, there are at preſent about twenty-five miniſters.

There

There are upwards of forty congregations of Friends, commonly called Quakers; who are in general ſober, plain, induſtrious, good citizens. For an account of their religious tenets ſee Pennſylvania.

There are thirty aſſociated congregations of Baptiſts, in New-Jerſey, whoſe religious tenets are ſimilar to thoſe already mentioned under Connecticut, (page 220.)

The Epiſcopalian intereſt conſiſts of twenty-five congregations.

There are, in this ſtate, two claſſes belonging to the Dutch Reformed Synod of New-York and New-Jerſey. The claſſis of Hakkenſak, to which belongs thirteen congregations; and the claſſis of New Brunſwick, to which belong fifteen congregations. We have already given an account of their church government, diſcipline, &c, (page 269.)

The Moravians have a flouriſhing ſettlement at Hope, in Suſſex county. This ſettlement was begun in 1771, and now conſiſts of upwards of 100 ſouls.

The Methodiſt intereſt is ſmall in this ſtate. The Swedes have a church in Glouceſter county: and there are three congregations of the Seventh-Day Baptiſts. All theſe religious denominations live together in peace and harmony; and are allowed, by the conſtitution of the ſtate, to worſhip Almighty God agreeably to the dictates of their own conſciences; and are not compelled to attend or ſupport any worſhip contrary to their own faith and judgment. All Proteſtant inhabitants, of peaceable behaviour, are eligible to the civil offices of the ſtate.

Colleges, Academies, and Schools.] There are two colleges in New-Jerſey; one at Princeton, called Naſſau Hall, the other at Brunſwick, called Queen's College. The College at Princeton was firſt founded by charter from John Hamilton, Eſq; Preſident of the Council, about the year 1738, and enlarged by Governor Belcher in 1747. The charter delegates a power of granting to "the ſtudents of ſaid college, or to any others thought worthy of them, all ſuch degrees as are granted in either of our univerſities, or any other college in Great-Britain." It has twenty-three truſtees. The governor of the ſtate, and the preſident of the college are, *ex officiis*, two of them. It has an annual income of about £.900 currency; of which £.200 ariſes from funded public ſecurities and lands, and the reſt from the fees of the ſtudents.

The preſident of the college is alſo profeſſor of eloquence, criticiſm, and chronology. The vice-preſident is alſo profeſſor of divinity and moral philoſophy. There is alſo a profeſſor of mathematics, and natural philoſophy, and two maſters of languages. The four claſſes in college contain about ſeventy ſtudents. There is a grammar-ſchool, of about thirty ſcholars, connected with the college, under the ſuperintendance of the preſident, and taught by two maſters.

Before the war this college was furniſhed with a philoſophical apparatus, worth £.500, which (except the elegant orrery conſtructed by Mr. Rittenhouſe) was almoſt entirely deſtroyed by the Britiſh army in the late war, as was alſo the library, which now conſiſts of between 2 and 3000 volumes.

The college edifice is handſomely built with ſtone, and is 180 feet in length, 54 in breadth, and 4 ſtories high; and is divided into forty-two convenient

convenient chambers for the accommodation of the ſtudents, beſides a dining hall, chapel room, and a room for the library. Its ſituation is exceedingly pleaſant and healthful. The view from the college balcony is extenſive and charming.

This college has been under the care of a ſucceſſion of Preſidents eminent for piety and learning; and has furniſhed a number of Civilians, Divines, and Phyſicians of the firſt rank in America. It is remarkable, that all the Preſidents of this college, except Dr. Witherſpoon, who is now Preſident, were removed by death very ſoon after their election into office*.

The charter for Queen's college, at Brunſwick, was granted juſt before the war, in conſequence of an application from a body of the Dutch church. Its funds, raiſed wholly by free donations, amounted, ſoon after its eſtabliſhment, to four thouſand pounds; but they were conſiderably diminiſhed by the war. The ſtudents are under the care of Preſident Hardenberg. The grammar-ſchool, which is connected with the college, conſiſts of between thirty and forty ſtudents, under the care of the truſtees. This college has lately increaſed both in numbers and reputation.

There are a number of flouriſhing academies in this ſtate. One at Trenton, in which are about eighty ſtudents in the different branches. It has a fund of about one hundred and fifty pounds per annum, ariſing from the intereſt on public ſecurities. Another in Hakkenſak, in the county of Bergen, of upwards of an hundred ſcholars. Inſtruction and board are ſaid to be cheaper here than in any part of the ſtate. There is another flouriſhing academy at Orangedale, in the county of Eſſex, conſiſting of nearly as many ſcholars as either of the others, furniſhed with able inſtructors, and good accommodations. Another has lately been opened at Elizabeth town, and conſiſts of upwards of twenty ſtudents in the languages, and is increaſing. There is alſo an academy in Burlington, in which young ladies and gentlemen are taught the Engliſh language grammatically, geography, and the learned languages. Beſides theſe, there are grammar-ſchools at Newark, Springfield, Morriſtown, Bordentown, and Amboy. There are no regular eſtabliſhments for common ſchools in the ſtate. The uſual mode of education is for the inhabitants of a village or neighbourhood to join in affording a temporary ſupport for a ſchool-maſter, upon ſuch terms as is mutually agreeable. But the encouragement which theſe occaſional teachers meet with, is generally ſuch, as that no perſon of abilities adequate to the buſineſs, will undertake it; and of courſe, little advantage is derived from theſe ſchools. The improvement in theſe common ſchools is generally in proportion to the wages of the teacher.

* *Acceſſus.*	*Preſidents.*	*Exitus.*
1746,	Rev. Jonathan Dickinſon,	1747.
1748,	Rev. Aaron Burr,	1757.
1758,	Rev. Jonathan Edwards,	1758.
1758,	Rev. Samuel Davies,	1760.
1761,	Rev. Samuel Finley, D. D.	1766.
1767,	Rev. John Witherſpoon, D. D.	

Chief

Chief Towns.] There are a number of towns in this ſtate, nearly of equal ſize and importance, and none that has more than two hundred houſes, compactly built. TRENTON is the largeſt town in New-Jerſey. It is ſituated on the north-eaſt ſide of the river Delaware, oppoſite the falls, nearly in the centre of the ſtate, from north to ſouth, in lat. 40° 15′, and about 20′ eaſt of the meridian of Philadelphia. The river is not navigable above theſe falls, except for boats, which will carry from five to ſeven hundred buſhels of wheat. This town, with Lamberton, which joins it on the ſouth, contains two hundred houſes, and about fifteen hundred inhabitants. Here the legiſlature meets, the ſupreme court ſits, and the public offices are all kept, except the ſecretary's, which is at Burlington. On theſe accounts, it is conſidered as the capital of the ſtate. In the neighbourhood of this pleaſant town, are ſeveral gentlemen's ſeats, finely ſituated on the banks of the Delaware, and ornamented with taſte and elegance. This town, being a thoroughfare between the eaſtern parts of the ſtate and Philadelphia, has a conſiderable inland trade.

BURLINGTON *(City)* extends three miles along the Delaware, and one mile back, at right angles, into the county of Burlington, and is twenty miles above Philadelphia by water, and ſeventeen by land. The iſland, which is the moſt populous part of the city, is a mile and a quarter in length, and three quarters of a mile in breadth. It has four entrances over bridges and cauſeways, and a quantity of bank meadow adjoining. On the iſland are one hundred and ſixty houſes, nine hundred white, and one hundred black inhabitants. But few of the negroes are ſlaves. The main ſtreets are conveniently ſpacious, and moſtly ornamented with trees in the fronts of the houſes, which are regularly arranged. The Delaware, oppoſite the town, is about a mile wide; and, under ſhelter of Mittinnicunk and Burlington Iſlands, affords a ſafe and convenient harbour. It is commodiouſly ſituated for trade, but is too near the opulent city of Philadelphia to admit of any conſiderable increaſe. There are two houſes for public worſhip in the town, one for the Friends or Quakers, who are the moſt numerous, and one for Epiſcopalians. The other public buildings are two market-houſes, a court-houſe, and the beſt gaol in the ſtate. Beſides theſe, there is an academy, already mentioned, a free ſchool, a nail manufactory, and an excellent diſtillery, if that can be called excellent, which produces a poiſon both of health and morals.

The city is a free port. The mayor, recorder, and aldermen hold a commercial court, when the matter in controverſy is between foreigners and foreigners, or between foreigners and citizens. The iſland of Burlington was laid out, and the firſt ſettlements made as early as 1677. In 1682, the iſland Mittinnicunk, or Free-School iſland, was given for the uſe of the iſland of Burlington; the yearly profits ariſing from it (which amount to one hundred and eighty pounds) are appropriated for the education of poor children.

PERTH AMBOY *(City)* took its name from James Drummond, earl of Perth; and Ambo, the Indian word for point, and ſtands on a neck of land included between Raritan river and Arthur Kull ſound. Its ſituation

tion is high and healthy. It lies open to Sandy-Hook, and has one of the beſt harbours on the continent. Veſſels from ſea may enter it in one tide, in almoſt any weather. Great efforts have been made, and legiſlative encouragements offered, to render it a place of trade, but without ſucceſs. This town was early incorporated with city privileges, and continued to ſend two members to the general aſſembly until the revolution. Until this event, it was the capital of Eaſt-Jerſey; and the legiſlature and ſupreme court uſed to ſit here and at Burlington alternately.

BRUNSWICK *(City)* was incorporated in 1784, and is ſituated on the ſouth-weſt ſide of Raritan river, twelve miles above Amboy. It contains about two hundred houſes, and ſixteen hundred inhabitants, one half of which are Dutch. Its ſituation is low and unpleaſant, being on the bank of the river, and under a high hill, which riſes back of the town. The ice, at the breaking up of the river in winter, frequently lodges on the ſhallow fording-place, juſt oppoſite the town, and forms a temporary dam, which occaſions the water to riſe many feet above its uſual height, and ſometimes to overflow the lower floors of thoſe houſes which are not guarded againſt this inconvenience, by having their foundations elevated. The water in the ſprings and wells is generally bad. The inhabitants are beginning to build on the hill above the town, which is very pleaſant, and commands a pretty proſpect. The citizens have a conſiderable inland trade, and ſeveral ſmall veſſels belonging to the port.

PRINCETON is a pleaſant, healthy village, of about eighty houſes, fifty-two miles from New-York, and forty-three from Philadelphia. Its public buildings are a large college edifice of ſtone, already deſcribed, and a Preſbyterian church, built of brick.

ELIZABETH-TOWN *(City)* is fifteen miles from New York. Its ſituation is pleaſant, and its ſoil is equal in fertility to any in the ſtate. In the compact part of the town, there are about one hundred and fifty houſes. The public buildings are, a very handſome preſbyterian brick church, lately built, an epiſcopal church, alſo of brick, and an academy. Governor Livingſton's ſeat is about a mile weſtward of the compact part of the town. Its fine ſituation—the elegance and convenience of the buildings—the arrangement and variety of fruit-trees—the gardens—the artificial fiſh-ponds, &c. diſcover a refined and judicious taſte. Ornament and utility are happily united. It is, indeed, a ſeat worthy of a Republican patriot, and of the author of the 'Philoſophical Solitude*.'

This is one of the oldeſt towns in the ſtate. It was purchaſed of the Indians as early as 1664, and was ſettled ſoon after.

NEWARK is nine miles from New York. It is a handſome, flouriſhing town, about the ſize of Elizabeth-town, and has two preſbyterian churches, one of which is of ſtone, and unfiniſhed, and is the largeſt and moſt elegant building in the ſtate. Beſides theſe there is an epiſcopal church, a court-houſe and gaol. This town has the fame of making the beſt cyder in the world.

* *A celebrated Ode, written by Governor Livingſton in early life.*

SHREWSBURY.

SHREWSBURY is between thirty and forty miles southwest by south from New York, on the sea coast, and is the largest and most populous town in the county of Monmouth. The soil in this and the neighbouring towns of Freehold and Middletown, are remarkably fertile. The inhabitants, 4321 in number, in the whole township, are a mixture of friends, episcopalians, presbyterians and methodists. Each has a house of worship. The friends are the most numerous. Among the first settlers of this town, which is one of the oldest in the state, were a number of families from New England.

MIDDLETOWN is fifty miles east by north from Trenton, and thirty south-west by south from New York, adjoining Shrewsbury. Sandy-Hook (so called from its shape and soil) is included in this township. On the point of the Hook stands the light house, one hundred feet high, built by the citizens of New-York.

Practice of Physic.] There is a 'Medical Society' in this state, consisting of about thirty of their most respectable physicians, who meet twice a year. No person is admitted to the practice of physic, without a licence from the supreme court, founded on a certificate from this society, or at least two of its members, testifying his skill and abilities. It is remarkable that in the county of Cape May, no regular physician has ever found support. Medicine has been administered by women, except in some extraordinary cases.

Practice of Law.] No person is permitted to practise as an attorney in any court without a licence from the governor. This cannot be obtained, unless the candidate shall be above twenty-one years of age, and shall have served a regular clerkship with some licensed attorney for four years, and have taken a degree in some public college, otherwise he must serve five years. He must also submit to an examination by three of the most eminent counsellors in the state, in the presence of the judges of the supreme court. After three years practice as an attorney, he becomes a candidate for a counsellor's licence, which is granted on a like examination. In consequence of these wise regulations, the practice of law in this state is respectable. Many of the people here, however, as in other states, think (because perhaps they are instruments in obliging them to pay their debts) that the lawyers know too much. But their knowledge will not injure those who are innocent, and who will let them alone. Experience has verified this observation in the county of Cape May. No lawyer lives within sixty miles of that county, and it is seldom that any attend their courts. The consequence is, that no person's landed estate was ever sold in this county, by a sheriff, for the payment of a debt. It is wished that this county may ever form this singular exception, perhaps, from all the counties in the United States.

Constitution.] The government of this state, agreeably to their constitution, is vested in a governor, legislative council, and general assembly. The governor is chosen annually, by the council and assembly jointly, and is stiled "Governor and commander in chief in and over the state of New Jersey, and the territories thereunto belonging, chancellor and ordinary in the same." The legislative council is composed of one member from each county, chosen annually by the people. They must be worth one thousand pounds in real and personal estate within the county,

and

and have been freeholders and inhabitants of the counties they repreſent for one year. The general aſſembly is compoſed of three members from each county, choſen as above; each of them muſt be worth five hundred pounds, in real and perſonal eſtate within the county, and have been freeholders and inhabitants as above. All theſe, on taking their ſeats in the legiſlature, muſt ſwear "that he will not aſſent to any law, vote or proceeding, WHICH SHALL APPEAR TO HIM injurious to the public welfare of the ſtate, or that ſhall annul or repeal that part of the conſtitution which eſtabliſhes annual elections, nor that part reſpecting trial by jury, nor that part which ſecures liberty of conſcience."

The governor ſits in, and preſides over the legiſlative council, and has a caſting vote in their debates. His privy or executive council is compoſed of any three members of the legiſlative council; and the governor and any ſeven members of the council are a court of appeals in the laſt reſort, as to points of law in civil caſes, and poſſeſs a power of pardoning criminals in all caſes whatſoever. The council chuſe one of their members to be vice preſident, who, when the governor is abſent from the ſtate, poſſeſſes the ſupreme executive power. The council may originate any bills, excepting preparing and altering any money bill, which is the ſole prerogative of the aſſembly. In every other reſpect their powers are equal. Every bill is read three times in each houſe. None of the judges of the ſupreme court, or other courts, ſheriffs, or any perſon poſſeſſed of any poſt of profit under the governor, except juſtices of the peace, is entitled to a ſeat in the aſſembly. The eſtate of a ſuicide is not forfeited for his offence.

Courts of Juſtice, Laws, &c.] The courts of juſtice in this ſtate are, firſt, *Juſtices Courts*. A competent number of perſons are appointed in each county by the council and aſſembly, in joint meeting, who are called juſtices of the peace, and continue in office five years, who, beſides being conſervators of the peace, agreeably to the Engliſh laws, are authorized to hold courts for the trial of cauſes under twelve pounds. From this court, perſons aggrieved, may appeal to the quarter ſeſſions. Secondly, *Courts of quarter ſeſſions of the peace*, are held quarterly in every county, by at leaſt three of the juſtices. This court takes cognizance of breaches of the peace, and is generally regulated by the rules of the Engliſh law.

Thirdly, *Courts of common pleas*, which are held quarterly, by judges appointed for that purpoſe, in the ſame manner as the juſtices of the peace, and who are commonly of their number, and hold their commiſſions five years. This court may be held by a ſingle judge, and has cognizance of demands to any amount, and is conſtructed on, and governed by the principles of the Engliſh laws.

Fourthly, *Supreme Courts*, which are held four times a year, at Trenton, by three judges appointed for that purpoſe, who hold their offices three years, but one judge only is neceſſary to the holding this court. This court has cognizance of all actions, both civil and criminal throughout the ſtate, having the united authority of the courts of king's bench, common pleas and exchequer in England. The courts of oyer and terminer and niſi prius, commonly held once a year in each county, for the trial of cauſes ariſing in the county, and brought to iſſue in the

ſupreme

ſupreme court, are properly branches of this court, and are held by one of the judges of it, except that in the courts of oyer and terminer, ſome of the gentlemen of the county are always added in the commiſſion, as aſſiſtants to the judge; but they cannot hold the court without him.

Fifthly, *Orphan's Courts*, lately eſtabliſhed by act of aſſembly, are held by the judges of the court of common pleas, *ex officio*, and have cognizance of all matters relating to wills, adminiſtrations, &c.

Sixthly, *Court of Chancery*, held by the governor, *ex officio*, always open. It is a court of law and equity, founded on the ſame principles, and governed by the ſame rules, as the court of chancery in England.

Seventhly, *High Court of Errors and Appeals*, compoſed of the governor, and ſeven of the council, and is a court of appeals in the laſt reſort, in all caſes of law.

All the Engliſh laws which had been practiſed upon in the ſtate, and which were not repugnant to revolution principles, were adopted by the conſtitution, and very few alterations of conſequence have ſince been made, except in the deſcent of real eſtates, which, inſtead of deſcending to the eldeſt ſon, agreeably to the old feudal ſyſtem, as formerly, are now divided (where there is no will) equally among the children, both male and female, except that the eldeſt ſon has two ſhares; a mode of deſcent much more conſiſtent with republican principles.

Military ſtrength.] The military ſtrength of New-Jerſey conſiſts only of the militia about 30,000 in number, who have been too much neglected ſince the war.

Revenue.] About £.10,000 are raiſed annually for the ſupport of government, and for the payment of incidental charges, and of the penſions of thoſe who were diſabled in the public ſervice during the war; and about £.44,000 raiſed annually for the payment of the intereſt on the public debt of this ſtate, and their quota of the debt of the United States. This revenue is raiſed by a tax on lands, iron works, mills, diſtilleries, breweries, ferries, fiſheries, carriages, ſtages, taverns, horſes, cattle, &c.

Hiſtory.] It is a taſk of no ſmall difficulty to give the reader a juſt view of the hiſtory of New Jerſey. Dr. Douglaſs obſerves, in great truth, that 'the affairs of this colony have always been in a confuſed ſtate, which occaſions an unavoidable confuſion in its hiſtory.'

The firſt ſettlers of New Jerſey, were a number of Dutch emigrants from New York, who came over between the years 1614 and 1620, and ſettled in the county of Bergen. Next after theſe, in 1627, came over a colony of Swedes and Finns, and ſettled on the river Delaware. They afterwards purchaſed of the Indians, the land on both ſides New-Swedeland ſtream, (now called Delaware river) from Cape Henlopen to the falls; and, by preſents to the Indian chiefs, obtained peaceable poſſeſſion of it. The Dutch and Swedes, though not in harmony with each other, kept poſſeſſion of the country many years. In 1683, the Dutch had a houſe devoted to religious worſhip at New Caſtle; the Swedes at the ſame time had three, beſides one on the iſland of Tenecum, one at Chriſtiana, and one at Wicoco. The preſent Swediſh churches in Philadelphia and Glouceſter county in New Jerſey, are deſcendants of theſe firſt ſettlers.

In

In March, 1634, Charles II. granted all the territory, called by the Dutch New-Netherlands, to his brother the Duke of York: And in June, 1664, the duke granted that part now called New Jerſey, to Lord Berkley of Stratton, and Sir George Carteret, jointly; who, in 1665, agreed upon certain conceſſions with the people for the government of the province, and appointed Philip Carteret, Eſq. their governor. He purchaſed conſiderable tracts of land from the Indians, for ſmall conſiderations, and the ſettlements increaſed.

The Dutch reduced the country in 1672; but it was reſtored by the peace of Weſtminſter, February 9th, 1674.

In conſequence of the conqueſt made by the Dutch, and to obviate any objections that might be made on account of it againſt the former grant, a new patent was iſſued, in 1674, to the duke of York, for the ſame country In July of this year, New Jerſey was divided, and Weſt Jerſey was granted, by the duke of York, to the aſſigns of Lord Berkley; and Eaſt Jerſey to Sir G. Carteret. The diviſion line was to run from the ſouth-eaſt point of Little Egg Harbour, on Barnegate Creek, being about the middle between Cape May and Sandy Hook, to a creek, a little below Ancocus creek, on Delaware river, thence about thirty-five miles, ſtrait courſe, along Delaware river, up to 41° 40′ north latitude. This line has never been ſettled, but has ever ſince continued to be a ſubject of contention.

In 1675, Weſt Jerſey, which had been granted to Lord Berkley, was ſold to John Fenwick, in truſt for Edward Bylinge. Fenwick came over with a colony, and ſettled at Salem. Theſe were the firſt Engliſh ſettlers in Weſt Jerſey. In 1676, the intereſt of Bylinge in Weſt Jerſey, was aſſigned to William Penn, Gavin Lourie, and Nicholas Lucas, as truſtees, for the uſe of his creditors. Mutual quit claims were executed between Sir George Carteret and the truſtees of Bylinge. This partition was confirmed in 1719, by an act of the general aſſembly of the Jerſeys.

In 1678, the duke of York made a new grant of Weſt Jerſey to the aſſigns of Lord Berkley.

Agreeably to Sir George Carteret's will, dated December 5, 1678, Eaſt Jerſey was ſold, in 1682, to twelve proprietors, who by twelve ſeparate deeds, conveyed one-half of their intereſt to twelve other perſons, ſeparately, in fee ſimple. This grant was confirmed to theſe twenty-four proprietors, by the duke of York, the ſame year. Theſe twenty-four ſhares, by ſales of ſmall parts of them, and by theſe ſmall parts being again divided among the children of ſucceſſive families, became at laſt ſubdivided in ſuch a manner, as that ſome of the proprietors had only one-40th part, of a 48th part of a 24th ſhare. Weſt Jerſey was in the ſame condition. This created much confuſion in the management of the general proprietors, particularly in regard to appointing governors. Theſe inconveniencies, aided by other cauſes of complaint, which had been increaſing for ſeveral years, and were faſt advancing to a dangerous criſis, diſpoſed the proprietors to ſurrender the government to the crown, which was accordingly done, and accepted by queen Ann, on the 17th of April, 1702. Till this time the government of New Jerſey was proprietory; it now became royal, and ſo continued till the memorable fourth of July, 1776.

This

This ſtate was the ſeat of war for ſeveral years, during the bloody conteſt between Great-Britain and America. Her loſſes both of men and property, in proportion to the population and wealth of the ſtate, was greater than of any other of the thirteen ſtates. When General Waſhington was retreating through the Jerſeys, almoſt forſaken by all others, her militia were at all times obedient to his orders; and for a conſiderable length of time compoſed the ſtrength of his army. There is hardly a town in the ſtate that lay in the progreſs of the Britiſh army, that was not rendered ſignal by ſome enterprize or exploit. At Trenton the enemy received a check which may be ſaid with juſtice to have turned the tide of the war. At Princeton, the ſeat of the muſes, they received another, which, united, obliged them to retire with precipitation, and to take refuge in diſgraceful winter quarters. But whatever honour this ſtate might derive from the relation, it is not our buſineſs to give a particular deſcription of battles or ſieges; we leave this to the pen of the hiſtorian, and only obſerve in general, that the many military atchievements performed by the Jerſey ſoldiers, give this ſtate one of the firſt ranks among her ſiſters in a military view, and entitle her to a ſhare of praiſe that bears no proportion to her ſize, in the accompliſhment of the late glorious revolution.

GOVERNORS *of* NEW-JERSEY, *from the ſurrender of the Government by the* PROPRIETORS in 1702, *to the preſent time.*

† Edward, viſcount Cornbury, 1702 to 1708, removed, and ſucceeded by
† John, Lord Lovelace, 1708 to 1709, died, and the government devolved to
Lt. Gov. Richard Ingoldſby, 1709 to 1710, when came in
† Brigadier Robert Hunter, 1710 to 1720, who reſigned in favour of
† William Burnet, 1720 to 1727, removed, and ſucceeded by
† John Montgomery, 1728 to 1731, died, and was ſucceeded by
† William Croſby, 1731 to 1736, died, and the government devolved to
John Anderſon, *Preſident of the Council*, 1736, by whoſe death, about two weeks after, the government devolved to
John Hamilton, *Preſident of the Council*, 1736 to 1738.

Thoſe marked † were Governors in chief, and down to this time were Governors of New York and New Jerſey but from 1738 forward, New Jerſey has had a ſeparate governor.

† Lewis Morris, 1738 to 1746, died, and the government devolved to
John Hamilton, *Preſident*, 1746, — by whoſe death it devolved to
John Reading, *Preſident*, 1746 to 1747.
† Jonathan Belcher, 1747 to 1757, died, and the government again devolved to
John Reading, *Preſident*, 1757 to 1758.

Thomas Pownall, then Governor of Maſſachuſetts, being Lieutenant-Governor, arrived on the death of Governor Belcher, but continued in the province a few days only.

† Francis

† Francis Bernard,	1758 to 1760,	removed to Boſton and ſucceeded by
† Thomas Boone,	1760 to 1761,	removed to S. Carolina, and ſucceeded by
† Joſiah Hardy,	1761 to 1763,	removed, and ſucceeded by
† William Franklin,	1763 to 1776,	removed, and ſucceeded by
† William Livingſton,	1776 ———	

PENNSYLVANIA.

SITUATION and EXTENT.

	Miles.		
Length	288	Between	39° 43′ and 42° North Latitude.
Breadth	156		0° 20′ Eaſt, and 5° Weſt Longitude.

Boundaries. BOUNDED eaſt, by Delaware river; north, by the parallel of 42° north latitude, which divides it from the ſtate of New York; ſouth, by the parallel of 39° 43′ 18″ north latitude, which divides it from the ſtates of Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia weſt, by a meridian line, drawn from the termination of five degrees of longitude, from a point on Delaware river, near Wilmington, in the parallel of 39° 43′ 18″ to interſect the parallel of 42°. This line divides the ſtate from a part of Virginia, the Weſtern Territory, (ſo called) and from a tract of land, 20 miles ſquare, which was confirmed to Connecticut by Congreſs. The northweſt corner of Pennſylvania extends about one mile and an half into Lake Erie, and is about twenty miles weſt of the old French fort at Preſque Iſle. The ſtate lies in the form of a parallelogram, and contains about 44,900 ſquare miles, equal to about 28,800,000 acres.

Mines and Minerals.] The following table exhibits the number, ſituation, and various kinds of mines and minerals in this ſtate. On the weſt ſide of the mountains, vitriolic, aluminous, and other mineral earths are found in great abundance. Beds of coal, lying pretty deep, in a horizontal direction, are almoſt univerſal in this weſtern country; but metallic ores of all kinds, eſpecially that of iron, appear to be wanting; while they are found in great plenty eaſtward of the mountains. A very probable reaſon has been aſſigned why it ſhould be ſo. It is this: The country eaſtward of the mountains, as hereafter mentioned, has evidently been torn to pieces by ſome violent convulſion, while that on the other ſide has remained undiſturbed. During this convulſion, the iron ore was probably thrown up from very great depths, where, by its gravity, it was accumulated, and coal, which lay nearer the ſurface, was, by the ſame convulſion, buried immenſely deep.

Civil

Civil divisions.] Pennsylvania is divided into twenty counties, which, with their county towns, situation, &c. are mentioned in the following

TABLE.

COUNTIES.	County Towns.	Situation.	Settl'd	Mines, &c.
Philadel. (City)	Philadelphia.	On Delaware R.	All	
Chester.	West Chester.	On Susquehan. R.	All	Iron ore.
Philadelphia.	Philadelphia.	On Delaware R	All	
Bucks.	Newton.	On Delaware R.	All	Iron ore.
Montgomery.	Norriston.	On Schuylkill R.	All	Iron ore.
Lancaster.	Lancaster.	On Susquehan. R.	All	Iron ore.
Dauphin.	Louisburgh.	On Susquehan. R.	$\frac{3}{4}$	
Berks.	Reading.	On Schuylkill R.	$\frac{3}{4}$	Coal mines &c.
Northampton.	Easton.	On Delaware R.	$\frac{3}{4}$	Iron ore.
Luzerne.	Wilksborough.	On Susquehan. R.	$\frac{3}{4}$	Coal mines
York.	York.	On Susquehan. R.	$\frac{1}{2}$	Iron ore.
Cumberland.	Carlisle.	On Susquehan. R.	$\frac{1}{2}$	Lead mines &c.
Northumberland.	Sunbury.	On west branch S.	*$\frac{1}{10}$	
Franklin.	Chamberstown	On Susquehan. R.	$\frac{3}{4}$	
Bedford.	Bedford.	On Juniatta R.	$\frac{1}{2}$	Iron mines, &c.
Huntingdon.	Huntingdon.	On Juniatta R.	$\frac{1}{4}$	Coal mines.
Westmoreland.	Greensburg.	On Allegany R.	$\frac{1}{4}$	Coal mines.
Fayette.	Union.	On Monongahela.	$\frac{1}{2}$	
Washington.	Washington.	S. W. corner state.	$\frac{1}{4}$	
Allegany.	Pittsburg.	On Allegany R.	$\frac{1}{4}$	

* *A very large proportion of the vacant lands in the state are in this county, (Northumberland) to the amount of about eight millions of acres.*

Rivers.

Rivers.] There are six considerable rivers, which, with their numerous branches, peninsulate the whole state, viz. The Delaware, Schuylkill, Susquehannah, Yohoganey, Monongahela, and Allegany. We have already given an account of the rise and progress of Delaware river, until it crosses into Pennsylvania (page 245.) From the mouth of Delaware bay, at Cape Henlopen, to Philadelphia, is reckoned one hundred and eighteen miles. So far there is a sufficient depth of water for a seventy-four gun ship. From Philadelphia to Trenton falls is thirty-five miles. This is the head of sloop navigation. The river is navigable for boats that carry eight or nine tons, forty miles further, and for Indian canoes, except several small falls or portages, one hundred and fifty miles. At Easton, it receives the Lehigh from the west, which is navigable thirty miles. The tide sets up as high as Trenton falls, and at Philadelphia rises generally about six feet. A north-east and east wind raises it higher.

On Cape Henlopen * stands the light-house, with a few other houses. Opposite the light-house, on the Jersey shore, twelve miles, is Cape May. Between these Capes is the entrance into the Delaware bay. The entrance into the river is twenty miles further up, at Bombay Hook, where the river is four or five miles wide. From Bombay Hook to Reedy island is twenty miles. This island is the rendezvous of outward bound ships in autumn and spring, waiting for a favourable wind. The course from this to the sea is S. S. E. so that a N. W. wind, which is the prevailing wind in these seasons, is fair for vessels to put out to sea. This river is generally frozen one or two months in the year so as to prevent navigation.

From Chester to Philadelphia, twenty miles, the channel of the river is narrowed by islands of marsh, which are generally banked and turned into rich and *immensely valuable* meadows.

Billingsport, twelve miles below Philadelphia, was fortified in the late war for the defence of the channel. Opposite this fort, several large frames of timber, headed with iron spikes, called chevaux de frizes, were sunk to prevent the British ships from passing. Since the peace, a curious machine has been invented in Philadelphia, to raise them.

The Schuylkill rises north-west of the Kittatinny mountains, through which it passes, into a fine champaign country, and runs, from its source, upwards of one hundred and twenty miles in a south-east direction, and falls into the Delaware three miles below Philadelphia. It is navigable from above Reading, eighty-five or ninety miles, to its mouth. There are three floating bridges thrown across it, made of logs fastened together, and lying upon the water.

The Susquehannah river rises in lake Otsego, in the state of New-York, and runs in such a winding course as to cross the boundary line between New York and Pennsylvania three times. It receives Tyoga river, one of its principal branches, in lat. 41° 57′, three miles south of the boundary line. The Susquehannah branch is navigable for batteaux to its source, whence to Mohawks river, is but twenty miles. The Tyoga branch is navigable fifty miles, for batteaux; and its source is but a few miles from the Cheneffee, which empties into lake Ontario. From

* *Henlopen* is a Swedish word, signifying '*entering in.*'

Tyoga

Tyoga point, the river proceeds ſouth-eaſt to Wyoming, without any obſtruction by falls, and then ſouth-weſt, over Wyoming falls, till at Sunbury, in about lat. 41° it meets the weſt branch of Suſquehannah, which is navigable ninety miles from its mouth, and ſome of the branches of it are navigable fifty miles, and are ſaid to approach very near ſome of the boatable branches of the Allegany river. From Sunbury the river is paſſable with boats to Louiſburgh and Middletown, on Swetara; and with rafts of boards and maſts to Lancaſter, but it is attended with difficulty and danger on account of the numerous falls below Middletown. About fifteen miles above Louiſburgh, it receives the Juniatta, from the north-weſt, proceeding from the Allegany mountains, and flowing through a mountainous, broken country. It is navigable, however, eighty miles from its mouth.

The Swetara, which falls into the Suſquehannah from the north-eaſt, is navigable fifteen miles. It is in contemplation to cut a canal about twenty miles from the Swetara to the Tulpehoken, a branch of the Schuylkill. Should this be effected, a paſſage would be open to Philadelphia from the Juniatta, the Tyoga, and the eaſt and weſt branches of the Suſquehannah, which water at leaſt 15,000,000 of acres. From this junction, the general courſe of the river is about ſouth-eaſt until it falls into the head of Cheſapeek bay, juſt below Havre-de-Grace. It is about a mile wide at its mouth, and is navigable for ſea veſſels but about twenty miles, on account of its rapids. The banks of this river are very romantic, particularly where it paſſes through the mountains. This paſſage has every appearance of having been forced through by the preſſure of the water, or of having been burſt open by ſome convulſion in nature.

The ſeveral branches of Yohogany river riſe on the weſt ſide of the Allegany mountains. After running a ſhort diſtance, they unite and form a large beautiful river, which, in paſſing ſome of the moſt weſtern ridges of the mountains, precipitates itſelf over a level ledge of rocks, lying nearly at right angles to the courſe of the river. Theſe falls, called the Ohiopyle falls, are about twenty feet in perpendicular height, and the river is perhaps eighty yards wide. For a conſiderable diſtance below the falls, the water is very rapid, and boils and foams vehemently, occaſioning a continual miſt to riſe from it, even at noon day, and in fair weather. The river at this place runs to the ſouth-weſt, but preſently winds round to the north-weſt, and continuing this courſe for thirty or forty miles, it loſes its name by uniting with the Monongahela, which comes from the ſouthward, and contains, perhaps, twice as much water. Theſe united ſtreams, ſhortly after their junction, mingle with the waters of the Allegany at Pittſburgh, and together form the grand river Ohio.

The Monongahela has been particularly deſcribed, and ſome obſervations made on the navigation of the Allegany, (Page 44.) In addition it may be obſerved, that at the junction of French Creek (which comes from the north-weſt) with the Allegany, are the remains of a Britiſh fortification; and about a mile above is a fort, built in 1787, and then guarded by a company of about ſixty American ſoldiers, under the command of Capt. Hart, from Connecticut. The Pennſylvania north line, croſſes French Creek about three miles above Le Bœuf, where there was formerly a fort. From Le Bœuf to Preſque-iſle, fourteen or fifteen miles,

is an old waggon road, cut by the French in the war of 1755. The lands on French Creek are very fertile, and moſtly cleared, which is an evidence that its former Indian inhabitants were numerous. Fourteen miles from the mouth of this creek is a gentle rapid, thence to its mouth, it is ſlow, deep and ſmooth.

Before we leave this intereſting head concerning rivers, we cannot omit inſerting the obſervations of Mr. Charles Thomſon, ſecretary of Congreſs. 'Beſides the three channels mentioned (page 45) between the weſtern waters, and the Atlantic, there are two others, to which the Pennſylvanians are turning their attention; one from Preſque-iſle, on Lake Erie, to Le Bœuf, down the Allegany to Kiſhiminitas, then up the Kiſhiminitas, and from thence, by a ſmall portage, to Juniatta, which falls into the Suſquehannah: The other from Lake Ontario to the eaſt branch of the Delaware, and down that to Philadelphia. Both theſe are ſaid to be very practicable; and, conſidering the enterpriſing temper of the Pennſylvanians, and particularly of the merchants of Philadelphia, whoſe object is concentered in promoting the commerce and trade of one city, it is not improbable but one or both of theſe communications will be opened and improved *.'

There is ſaid to be ſtill another communication equally as practicable as either of the others; and that is between the ſouthern branch of the Tyoga and a branch of the Allegany, the head waters of which, are but a ſhort diſtance from each other. The Seneca Indians ſay, they can walk four times in a day, from the boatable waters of the Ohio, to thoſe of the Tyoga, at the place now mentioned. And between the Suſquehannah, juſt before it croſſes into Pennſylvania the firſt time, and the Delaware, is a portage of only twelve miles

One remark muſt not be omitted here, and that is, that in all the back country, waters of this ſtate, even in thoſe high up in the mountains, marine petrifactions may be found in great abundance.

Swamps.] The only ſwamps worth noticing, are, the *Great Swamp*, between Northampton and Luzerne counties, and *Buffaloe ſwamp* in the north-weſtern parts of Northumberland county, near the head waters of the weſt branch of the Suſquehannah. Theſe ſwamps, on examination and ſurvey, are found to be bodies of rich farm land, thickly covered with beech and ſugar maple.

Mountains, face of the country, ſoil and productions.] As much as nearly one third of this ſtate may be called mountainous; particularly the counties of Bedford, Huntingdon, Cumberland, part of Franklin, Dauphin, and part of Bucks and Northampton, through which paſs, under various names, the numerous ridges and ſpurs, which collectively form what we chuſe to call, for the ſake of clearneſs, the GREAT RANGE OF ALLEGANY MOUNTAINS. The principal ridges in this range, in Pennſylvania, are the Kittatinny, or Blue mountain, which paſs north of Nazareth in Northampton county, and purſue a ſouth-weſt courſe, acroſs the Lehigh, through Dauphin county, juſt above Louiſburgh, thence on the weſt ſide of the Suſquehannah through Cumberland and Franklin counties. Back of theſe, and nearly parallel with them, are Peters, Tuſcarora and Neſcopek mountains, on the eaſt of the Suſquehannah; and on the weſt,

* *See Appendix to Mr. Jefferſon's Notes on Virginia. No. I.*

Shareman's

Shareman's hills, Sideling hills, Ragged, Great Warriors, Evits and Wills mountains; then the great Allegany ridge, which being the largeſt, gives its name to the whole range; weſt of this are the Laurel and Cheſnut ridges. Between the Juniatta and the weſt branch of the Suſquehannah are Jacks, Tuſſes, Nittiny and Bald Eagle mountains. The vales between theſe mountains are generally of a rich, black ſoil, ſuited to the various kinds of grain and graſs. Some of the mountains will admit of cultivation almoſt at their tops.

There is a remarkable difference between the country on the eaſt and weſt ſide of the range of mountains we have juſt been deſcribing. Between theſe mountains and the lower falls of the rivers which run into the Atlantic, not only in this but in all the ſouthern ſtates, are ſeveral ranges of ſtones, ſand, earths and minerals, which lie in the utmoſt confuſion. Beds of ſtone, of vaſt extent, particularly of lime-ſtone, have their ſeveral layers broken in pieces, and the fragments thrown confuſedly in every direction. Between theſe lower falls and the ocean, is a very extenſive collection of ſand, clay, mud and ſhells, partly thrown up by the waves of the ſea, partly brought down by floods from the upper country, and partly produced by the decay of vegetable ſubſtances. The country weſtward of the Allegany mountains, in theſe reſpects, is totally different. It is very irregular, broken and variegated, but there are no mountains; and when viewed from the moſt weſtern ridge of the Allegany, it appears to be a vaſt extended plain. All the various ſtrata of ſtone appear to have lain undiſturbed in the ſituation wherein they were firſt formed. The layers of clay, ſand and coal, are nearly horizontal. Scarcely a ſingle inſtance is to be found to the contrary. Detached rocks are indeed found here in all ſituations, as well as eaſtward of the mountains; but theſe are only ſuch as lie near the ſurface, and being undermined by the waters, have tumbled from their original places. Every appearance, in ſhort, tends to confirm the opinion, that the original cruſt, in which the ſtone was formed, has never been broken up on the weſt ſide of the mountains, as it evidently has been eaſtward of them. The irregularity and unevenneſs of the country weſtward of the mountains, appear to have been the effect of water deſcending in heavy ſhowers of rain. Many thouſands of ſquare miles are cut by innumerable deep drains for carrying off water, and nothing is left between them but high, ſteep and narrow ridges. The prodigious rains which produced this ſurpriſing effect, probably filled up the intervals between the mountains, and the preſſure of the water in time, may have become ſo great as to have, at length, broken through the loweſt and weakeſt parts of them; and in ſuch places have carried away the rocks which formed the ridges, down nearly as low as the preſent beds of the rivers; part of the water running eaſtward, and part weſtward, ſo that the principal ridge, the proper Allegany, only was left unbroken. The rocks, thus torn from their beds, appear to have been lodged within a few miles of the mountains, where at this day we find them; and the gravel, ſand and earth, carried far below, and depoſited in the lower country, in ſucceſſion, according to their reſpective gravities*.

* See Col. Mag. Vol. I. P. 49.

In this connection, in confirmation of what we have now been saying, and alſo of what was obſerved, page 48, I beg leave to introduce the remarks of the ſecretary of Congreſs, whom we juſt now quoted, which were ſuggeſted on his reading Mr. Jefferſon's deſcription of the paſſage of the Patomak through the Blue ridge. 'The reflections I was led into on viewing this paſſage of the Patomak through the Blue ridge were, that this country muſt have ſuffered ſome violent convulſion, and that the face of it muſt have been changed from what it probably was ſome centuries ago; that the broken and ragged faces of the mountain on each ſide the river; the tremendous rocks, which are left with one end fixed in the precipice, and the other jutting out, and ſeemingly ready to fall for want of ſupport; the bed of the river for ſeveral miles below obſtructed, and filled with the looſe ſtones carried from this mound; in ſhort, every thing on which you caſt your eye, evidently demonſtrates a diſrupture and breach in the mountain, and that, before this happened, what is now a fruitful vale, was formerly a great lake or collection of water, which poſſibly might have here formed a mighty caſcade, or had its vent to the ocean by the Suſquehannah, where the Blue ridge ſeems to terminate. Beſides this, there are other parts of this country which bear evident traces of a like convulſion. From the beſt accounts I have been able to obtain, the place where the Delaware now flows through the Kittatinny mountain, which is a continuation of what is called the North ridge, or mountain, was not its original courſe, but that it paſſed through what is now called 'the Wind-gap,' a place ſeveral miles to the weſtward, and above an hundred feet higher than the preſent bed of the river. This wind-gap is about a mile broad, and the ſtones in it ſuch as ſeem to have been waſhed for ages by water runnn g over them. Should this have been the caſe, there muſt have been a large lake behind that mountain, and by ſome uncommon ſwell in the waters, or by ſome convulſion of nature, the river muſt have opened its way through a different part of the mountain, and meeting there with leſs obſtruction, carried away with it the oppoſing mounds of earth, and deluged the country below with the immenſe collection of waters to which this new paſſage gave vent. There are ſtill remaining, and daily diſcovered, innumerable inſtances of ſuch a deluge on both ſides of the river, after it paſſed the hills above the falls of Trenton, and reached the champaign. On the New Jerſey ſide, which is flatter than the Pennſylvania ſide, all the country below Croſwick hills ſeems to have been overflowed to the diſtance of from ten to fifteen miles back from the river, and to have acquired a new ſoil by the earth and clay brought down and mixed with the native ſand. The ſpot on which Philadelphia ſtands evidently appears to be made ground. The different ſtrata through which they paſs in digging to water, the acorns, leaves, and ſometimes branches, which are found above twenty feet below the ſurface, all ſeem to demonſtrate this. I am informed that at York town in Virginia, in the bank of York river, there are different ſtrata of ſhells and earth, one above another, which ſeem to point out that the country there has undergone ſeveral changes; that the ſea has, for a ſucceſſion of ages, occupied the place where dry land now appears; and that the ground has been ſuddenly raiſed at various periods. What a change

change would it make in the country below, ſhould the mountains at Niagara, by any accident, be cleft aſunder, and a paſſage ſuddenly opened to drain off the waters of Erie and the Upper Lakes: While ruminating on theſe ſubjects, I have often been hurried away by fancy, and led to imagine, that what is now the bay of Mexico, was once a champaign country; and that from the point or cape of Florida, there was a continued range of mountains through Cuba, Hiſpaniola, Porto-Rico, Martinique, Gaudaloupe, Barbadoes, and Trinidad, till it reached the coaſt of America, and formed the ſhores which bounded the ocean, and guarded the country behind: that, by ſome convulſion or ſhock of nature, the ſea had broken through theſe mounds, and deluged that vaſt plain, till it reached the foot of the Andes; that being there heaped up by the trade-winds, always blowing from one quarter, it had found its way back, as it continues to do, through the gulph between Florida and Cuba, carrying with it the loom and ſand it may have ſcooped from the country it had occupied, part of which it may have depoſited on the ſhores of North America, and with part formed the banks of Newfoundland.—But theſe are only the viſions of fancy *.'

In addition to what we have already ſaid reſpecting the face of the country in Pennſylvania, it may be obſerved, that, excepting the Allegany range of mountains, which croſſes the ſtate in an oblique direction, and is from twenty to fifty miles wide, the ſtate is generally level, or agreeably diverſified with gentle hills and vales.

The ſoil is of the various kinds; in ſome parts it is barren; a great proportion of the ſtate is good land; and no inconſiderable part is very good. Perhaps the proportion of firſt rate land is not greater in any of the thirteen ſtates. The richeſt part of the ſtate that is ſettled is Lancaſter county. The richeſt that is unſettled, is between Allegany river and Lake Erie, in the north-weſt corner of the ſtate. Of this fine tract, 100,000 acres, lying on and near French Creek, are for ſale by the ſtate. The convenient communications through this creek into the Allegany, and from the Allegany, through various creeks and rivers to the Suſquehannah and Patomak, have already been mentioned.

The north ſide of Pennſylvania is the richeſt and the beſt ſettled land throughout, owing entirely to the circumſtance of the weſtern road having been run by the armies, prior to 1762, through the towns of Lancaſter, Carliſle and Bedford, and thence to Pittſburgh. For the purpoſe of turning the tide of ſettlers from this old channel, into the unſettled and more fertile parts of the ſtate, the government and landed intereſt of Pennſylvania have been, and are ſtill buſy in cutting convenient roads. During the laſt ſummer (1788) they run a road north, from the former roads beyond Bethlehem, to the north portage between Delaware and Suſquehannah; and thence north eighty degrees weſt to the mouth of the Tyoga; the firſt ſeventy miles, and the laſt above ſixty. It is now in contemplation to cut a road from Sunbury, at the forks of the eaſt and weſt branches of Suſquehannah, weſt, 150 miles, to the mouth of Toby's creek, which empties into the Allegany river, from the eaſt. This road will be through a tract of rich land, now for ſale by

* Jefferſon's Notes on Virginia. Appendix, No. II.

the ſtate. A road is alſo cutting from the mouth of the Tyoga, ſouthward, to the mouth of Loyal, a branch of the weſt branch of Suſquehannah. Another road is cutting from Huntingdon-town, on Frankstown branch of the Juniatta, weſtward thirty miles, to a navigable branch of the Allegany.

Thus the well-judged policy of this ſtate, is paving the way for the ſettlement of all their waſte lands. And to evidence their benevolence, and their wiſhes to have the advantages of education increaſed, and more extenſively enjoyed, they have allotted 60,000 acres of theſe waſte lands for the uſe of public ſchools; and above 60,000 more have been granted for that purpoſe, and to the ſocieties eſtabliſhed for the promotion of knowledge, the arts, religion, &c.

In addition to the common obſervation, that the natural growth of this ſtate is ſimilar to that of New-Jerſey and New-York, which is indeed the caſe in moſt reſpects, it may be ſaid, that there are in Pennſylvania great bodies of ſugar-maple, particularly in the counties of Northampton, Luzerne, Northumberland and Waſhington, which yield a well-taſted and wholeſome ſugar, to profit.

Cumberland and Franklin valley is timbered principally with locuſt, black walnut, hickory and white oak. The mountainous parts are covered with pines, cheſnuts, &c.

The produce from culture, conſiſts of wheat, which is the ſtaple commodity of the ſtate, ſome rye, Indian corn, buck-wheat, oats, ſpeltz *, barley, which is now raiſed in greater quantities than formerly, occaſioned by the vaſt conſumption of it by the breweries in Philadelphia, hemp, flax, and vegetables of all the various kinds common to the climate. Pennſylvania is a good grazing country, and great numbers of cattle are fed, and large dairies are kept, but their beef, pork and cheeſe, are not reckoned ſo good as thoſe of Connecticut and the other parts of New-England; but their butter has been ſuppoſed ſuperior.

Climate, diſeaſes, longevity, &c.] Nothing different from that of Connecticut; except, that on the weſt ſide of the mountains, the weather is much more regular. The inhabitants never feel thoſe quick tranſitions from cold to heat, by a change of the wind from north to ſouth, as thoſe ſo frequently experience, who live eaſtward of the mountains, and near the ſea. The hot ſouthwardly winds get chilled by paſſing over the long chain of Allegany mountains.

It has been obſerved that Pennſylvania is now more unhealthy than formerly; that bilious and remitting fevers, which a few years ago appeared chiefly in the neighbourhood of rivers, creeks and mill-ponds, now appear in parts remote from them all, and in the higheſt ſituations. This change has been traced to three cauſes: Firſt, To the increaſe of mill-ponds. Till theſe were eſtabliſhed, intermittents, in ſeveral counties in Pennſylvania, were unknown. Secondly, to the clearing of the country. It has been remarked, that intermittents on the ſhores of the Suſquehannah, have kept an exact pace with the paſſages which have been opened for the propagation of marſh effluvia, by cutting down the wood which formerly grew in its neighbourhood. A diſtinction,

* *See this kind of grain deſcribed, page* 53.

however

however, is to be made between clearing and cultivating a country. While clearing a country makes it ſickly in the manner that has been mentioned, cultivating a country, that is, draining ſwamps, deſtroying weeds, burning bruſh, and exhaling the unwholeſome and ſuperfluous moiſture of the earth, by means of frequent crops of grain, graſſes and vegetables of all kinds, render it healthy. Several parts of the United States have preſſed through the ſeveral ſtages that have been deſcribed. The firſt ſettlers received their country from the hand of nature, pure and healthy. Fevers ſoon followed their improvements, nor were they finally baniſhed, until the higher degrees of cultivation took place. Nor even then, where the ſalutary effects of cultivation were rendered abortive by the neighbourhood of mill-ponds.

As a third cauſe of this increaſe of fevers, the unequal quantities of rain which have fallen of late years, has been aſſigned. While the creeks and rivers were confined within ſteady bounds, there was little or no exhalation of febrile miaſmata from their ſhores. But the dry ſummers of 1780, 1781, and 1782, by reducing the rivers and creeks far below their ancient marks; while the wet ſprings of 1784 and 1785, by ſwelling them beyond their natural heights, have, when they have fallen, as in the former caſe, left a large and extenſive ſurface of moiſt ground expoſed to the action of the ſun, and of courſe to the generation and exhalation of febrile miaſmata *.

This ſtate, having been ſettled but little more than a hundred years, is not ſufficiently old to determine from facts the ſtate of longevity. Among the people called Quakers, who are the oldeſt ſettlers, there are inſtances of longevity, occaſioned by their living in the old, cultivated counties, and the temperance impoſed on them by their religion. There are fewer long-lived people among the Germans, than among other nations, occaſioned by their exceſs of labour and low diet. They live chiefly upon vegetables and watery food, that affords too little nouriſhment to repair the waſte of their ſtrength by hard labour.

Nearly one half of the children born in Philadelphia, die under two years of age, and chiefly with a diſeaſe in the ſtomach and bowels. Very few die at this age in the country.

Population, character, manners, &c.] In the grand convention which was held in Philadelphia, in the ſummer of 1787, the inhabitants in Pennſylvania were reckoned at 360,000. It is probable they are now more numerous: perhaps 400,000. If we fix them at this, the population for every ſquare mile will be only nine; by which it appears that Pennſylvania is only one-fifth as populous as Connecticut.

But Connecticut was ſettled nearly half a century before Pennſylvania; ſo that in order to do juſtice to Pennſylvania in the compariſon, we muſt anticipate her probable population fifty years hence. At this period, if we admit that the number of inhabitants is doubled once in twenty-five years, by natural increaſe, without the aid of foreign emigrations, the population will be equal to thirty-ſix for every ſquare mile. Add to this, 400,000 for the increaſe by emigrants and their deſcen-

* *Inquiry into the cauſes of the increaſe of fevers in Pennſylvania.*

dents, which is probably not too large a number, conſidering the length of time—the extenſive tracts of rich and vacant lands—the ſpirit of emigration in the eaſtern ſtates—the probable influx of inhabitants, upon the eſtabliſhment and ſalutary operation of the new government—and the inducements which are held up to encourage ſettlers to fix in this ſtate. All theſe things taken into view, we may venture to predict, that Pennſylvania, at the end of half a century from this time, will contain two millions of ſouls, which is about forty-five for every ſquare mile, equal to the preſent population of Connecticut.

Statement of the number of taxable inhabitants in Pennſylvania, in the years 1760, 1770, 1779, *and* 1786*.

	1760,	1770	1779	1786
Philadelphia city and county,	8,321	10,455	3,681 7,066	4,876 4,516
Bucks county,	3,148	3,177	4,067	4,237
Cheſter,	4,761	5,483	6,378	6,268
Lancaſter,	5,631	6,608	8,433	5,839
York,	3,302	4,426	6,281	6,254
Cumberland,	1,501	3,521	5,092	3,939
Berks,	3,016	3,302	4,662	4,732
Northampton,	1,987	2,793	3,600	3,967
Bedford,	-	-	1,201	2,632
Northumberland,	-	-	2,111	2,166
Weſtmoreland,	-	-	2,111	2,653
Waſhington,	-	-	-	3,908
Fayette,	-	-	-	2,041
Franklin,	-	-	-	2,237
Montgomery,	-	-	-	3,725
Dauphin,	-	-	-	2,881
Luzerne,	-	-	-	†
Total,	31,667	39,765	54,683	66,925

The number of militia in Pennſylvania, are reckoned at 85,000, between eighteen and fifty-three years of age.

The inhabitants of Pennſylvania conſiſt of emigrants from England, Ireland, Germany and Scotland. The Friends and Epiſcopalians are chiefly of Engliſh extraction, and compoſe about one-third of the inhabitants. They live principally in the city of Philadelphia, and in the

* *So often have the counties of this ſtate been divided and ſubdivided—and the boundaries altered, that a compariſon in this ſtatement can hardly be made, except between the ſeveral totals: as, for inſtance, it would appear from the above table that Philadelphia county had decreaſed in population between the years* 1779 *and* 1786*—whereas the contrary is the caſe—for Montgomery county was ſtruck off from it. The ſame is obſervable of all the counties wherein a decreaſe appears.*

† *No return.*

counties

counties of Cheſter, Philadelphia, Bucks and Montgomery. The Iriſh are moſtly Preſbyterians. Their anceſtors came from the north of Ireland, which was originally ſettled from Scotland; hence they have ſometimes been called Scotch-Iriſh, to denote their double deſcent. But they are commonly and more properly called Iriſh, or the deſcendents of people from the north of Ireland. They inhabit the weſtern and frontier counties, and are numerous.

The Germans compoſe one quarter at leaſt, if not a third of the inhabitants of Pennſylvania. They inhabit the north parts of the city of Philadelphia, and the counties of Philadelphia, Montgomery, Bucks, Dauphin, Lancaſter, York and Northampton; moſtly in the four laſt. They conſiſt of Lutherans, (who are the moſt numerous ſect) Calviniſts, Moravians, Mennoniſts, Tunkers (corruptly called Dunkers) and Swingfelters, who are a ſpecies of Quakers. Theſe are all diſtinguiſhed for their temperance, induſtry and oeconomy.

The Germans have uſually fifteen of ſixty-nine members in the aſſembly; and ſome of them have ariſen to the firſt honours in the ſtate, and now fill a number of the higher offices. Yet the lower claſs are very ignorant and ſuperſtitious. It is not uncommon to ſee them going to market with a little bag of ſalt tied to their horſes manes, for the purpoſe, they ſay, of keeping off the witches.

The Baptiſts (except the Mennoniſt and Tunker Baptiſts, who are Germans) are chiefly the deſcendants of emigrants from Wales, and are not numerous. A proportionate aſſemblage of the national prejudices, the manners, cuſtoms, religions, and political ſentiments of all theſe, will form the Pennſylvanian character. As the leading traits in this character, thus conſtituted, we may venture to mention induſtry, frugality, bordering in ſome inſtances on parſimony, enterprize, a taſte and ability for improvements in mechanics, in manufactures, in agriculture, in commerce, and in the liberal ſciences; temperance, plainneſs and ſimplicity in dreſs and manners; pride and humility in their extremes; inoffenſiveneſs and intrigue; in regard to religion, variety and harmony; liberality and its oppoſites, ſuperſtition and bigotry; and in politics an unhappy jargon. Such appear to be the diſtinguiſhing traits in the collective Pennſylvanian character.

In this connection, and in a work of this kind, the remarks of a citizen of Philadelphia, on 'the progreſs of population, agriculture, manners and government in Pennſylvania, in a letter to his friend in England,' are too valuable to be omitted.

"The firſt ſettler in the woods is generally a man who has out-lived his credit or fortune in the cultivated parts of the ſtate. His time for migrating is in the month of April. His firſt object is to build a ſmall cabin of rough logs for himſelf and family. The floor of this cabin is of earth, the roof is of ſplit logs—the light is received through the door, and, in ſome inſtances, through a ſmall window made of greaſed paper. A coarſer building adjoining this cabin affords a ſhelter to a cow, and a pair of poor horſes. The labour of erecting theſe buildings is ſucceeded by killing the trees on a few acres of ground near his cabin; this is done by cutting a circle round the trees, two or three feet from the ground. The ground around theſe trees is then ploughed, and

Indian

Indian corn planted in it. The ſeaſon for planting this grain is about the 20th of May. It grows generally on new ground, with but little cultivation, and yields in the month of October following, from 40 to 50 buſhels per acre. After the firſt of September it affords a good deal of nouriſhment to his family, in its green or unripe ſtate, in the form of what is called *roaſting ears*. His family is fed during the ſummer by a ſmall quantity of grain, which he carries with him, and by fiſh and game. His cows and horſes feed upon wild graſs, or the ſucculent twigs of the woods. For the firſt year he endures a great deal of diſtreſs from hunger —cold—and a variety of accidental cauſes, but he ſeldom complains or ſinks under them. As he lives in the neighbourhood of Indians, he ſoon acquires a ſtrong tincture of their manners. His exertions, while they continue, are violent; but they are ſucceeded by long intervals of reſt. His pleaſures conſiſt chiefly in fiſhing and hunting. He loves ſpirituous liquors, and he eats, drinks and ſleeps in dirt and rags in his little cabin. In his intercourſe with the world he manifeſts all the art which characterize the Indians of our country. In this ſituation he paſſes two or three years. In proportion as population increaſes around him, he becomes uneaſy and diſſatisfied. Formerly his cattle ranged at large, but now his neighbours call upon him to confine them within fences, to prevent their treſpaſſing upon their fields of grain. Formerly he fed his family with wild animals, but theſe, which fly from the face of man, now ceaſe to afford him an eaſy ſubſiſtence, and he is compelled to raiſe domeſtic animals for the ſupport of his family. Above all, he revolts againſt the operation of laws. He cannot bear to ſurrender up a ſingle natural right for all the benefits of government; and therefore he abandons his little ſettlement, and ſeeks a retreat in the woods, where he again ſubmits to all the toils which have been mentioned. There are inſtances of many men who have broken ground on bare creation, no leſs than four different times in this way, in different and more advanced parts of the ſtate. It has been remarked, that the flight of this claſs of people is always increaſed by the preaching of the goſpel. This will not ſurpriſe us when we conſider how oppoſite its precepts are to their licentious manner of living. If our firſt ſettler was the owner of the ſpot of land which he began to cultivate, he ſells it at a conſiderable profit to his ſucceſſor; but if (as is oftener the caſe) he was a tenant to ſome rich landholder, he abandons it in debt; however, the ſmall improvements he leaves behind him, generally makes it an object of immediate demand to a *ſecond* ſpecies of ſettler.

This ſpecies of ſettler is generally a man of ſome property; he pays one-third or one-fourth part in caſh for his plantation, which conſiſts of three or four hundred acres, and the reſt in gales or inſtalments, as it is called here; that is, a certain ſum yearly, without intereſt, till the whole is paid. The firſt object of this ſettler is to build an addition to his cabin; this is done with hewed logs: and as ſaw mills generally follow ſettlements, his floors are made of boards; his roof is made of what are called clapboards, which are a kind of coarſe ſhingles, ſplit out of ſhort oak logs. This houſe is divided by two floors, on each of which are two rooms: under the whole is a cellar walled with ſtone. The cabin ſerves as a kitchen to this houſe. His next object is to clear a little meadow

dow ground, and plant an orchard of two or three hundred apple-trees His ſtable is likewiſe enlarged; and, in the courſe of a year or two, he builds a large log barn, the roof of which is commonly thatched with rye ſtraw: he moreover increaſes the quantity of his arable land; and, inſtead of cultivating Indian corn alone, he raiſes a quantity of wheat and rye: the latter is cultivated chiefly for the purpoſe of being diſtilled into whiſkey. This ſpecies of ſettler by no means extracts all from the earth, which it is able and willing to give. His fields yield but a ſcanty increaſe, owing to the ground not being ſufficiently ploughed. The hopes of the year are often blaſted by his cattle breaking through his half-made fences, and deſtroying his grain. His horſes perform but half the labour that might be expected from them, if they were better fed; and his cattle often die in the ſpring from the want of proviſion, and the delay of graſs. His houſe, as well as his farm, bear many marks of a weak tone of mind. His windows are unglazed, or, if they have had glaſs in them, the ruins of it are ſupplied with old hats or pillows. This ſpecies of ſettler is ſeldom a good member of civil or religious ſociety: with a large portion of an hereditary mechanical kind of religion, he neglects to contribute ſufficiently towards building a church, or maintaining a regular adminiſtration of the ordinances of the goſpel: he is equally indiſpoſed to ſupport civil government: with high ideas of liberty, he refuſes to bear his proportion of the debt contracted by its eſtabliſhment in our country: he delights chiefly in company—ſometimes drinks ſpirituous liquors to exceſs—will ſpend a day or two in every week, in attending political meetings; and thus he contracts debts, which, (if he cannot diſcharge in a depreciated paper currency) compel him to ſell his plantation, generally in the courſe of a few years, to the *third* and laſt ſpecies of ſettler.

This ſpecies of ſettler is commonly a man of property and good character; ſometimes he is the ſon of a wealthy farmer in one of the interior and ancient counties of the ſtate. His firſt object is to convert every ſpot of ground, over which he is able to draw water, into meadow: where this cannot be done, he ſelects the moſt fertile ſpots on the farm, and devotes it by manure to that purpoſe. His next object is to build a barn, which he prefers of ſtone. This building is, in ſome inſtances, one hundred feet in front, and forty in depth: it is made very compact, ſo as to ſhut out the cold in winter; for our farmers find that their horſes and cattle, when kept warm, do not require near as much food, as when they are expoſed to the cold. He uſes œconomy, likewiſe, in the conſumption of his wood. Hence he keeps himſelf warm in winter, by means of ſtoves, which ſave an immenſe deal of labour to himſelf and his horſes, in cutting and hawling wood in cold and wet weather. His fences are every where repaired, ſo as to ſecure his grain from his own and his neighbour's cattle. But further, he increaſes the number of the articles of his cultivation, and, inſtead of raiſing corn, wheat, and rye alone, he raiſes oats, buck-wheat (the fagopyrum of Linnæus) and ſpelts. Near his houſe, he allots an acre or two of ground for a garden, in which he raiſes a large quantity of cabbage and potatoes. His newly cleared fields afford him every year a large increaſe of turnips. Over the ſpring which ſupplies him with water, he builds a milk-houſe: he likewiſe

likewiſe adds to the number, and improves the quality of his fruit-trees his ſons work by his ſide all the year, and his wife and daughters forſake the dairy and the ſpinning-wheel, to ſhare with him in the toils of harveſt. The laſt object of his induſtry is to build a dwelling-houſe. This buſineſs is ſometimes effected in the courſe of his life, but is oftener bequeathed to his ſon, or the inheritor of his plantation; and hence we have a common ſaying among our beſt farmers, 'that a ſon ſhould always begin where his father left off;' that is, he ſhould begin his improvements, by building a commodious dwelling-houſe, ſuited to the improvements and value of the plantation. This dwelling-houſe is generally built of ſtone; it is large, convenient, and filled with uſeful and ſubſtantial furniture; it ſometimes adjoins the houſe of the ſecond ſettler, but is frequently placed at a little diſtance from it. The horſes and cattle of this ſpecies of ſettler, bear marks in their ſtrength, fat, and fruitfulneſs—of their being plentifully fed and carefully kept. His table abounds with a variety of the beſt proviſions; his very kitchen flows with milk and honey; beer, cyder, and wine are the uſual drinks of his family; the greateſt part of the clothing of his family is manufactured by his wife and daughters. In proportion as he increaſes in wealth, he values the protection of laws: hence he punctually pays his taxes towards the ſupport of government. Schools and churches likewiſe, as the means of promoting order and happineſs in ſociety, derive a due ſupport from him: for benevolence and public ſpirit, as to theſe objects, are the natural offspring of affluence and independence. Of this claſs of ſettlers are two-thirds of the farmers of Pennſylvania: theſe are the men to whom Pennſylvania owes her ancient fame and conſequence. If they poſſeſs leſs refinement than their ſouthern neighbours, who cultivate their lands with ſlaves, they poſſeſs more republican virtue. It was from the farms cultivated by theſe men, that the American and French armies were fed chiefly with bread during the late revolution: and it was from the produce of theſe farms, that thoſe millions of dollars were obtained from the Havanna after the year 1780, which laid the foundation of the bank of North America, and which fed and clothed the American army, till the glorious peace of Paris.

This is a ſhort account of the happineſs of a Pennſylvania farmer; to this happineſs our ſtate invites men of every religion and country. We do not pretend to offer emigrants the pleaſure of Arcadia; it is enough if affluence, independence, and happineſs are inſured to patience, induſtry, and labour. The moderate price of land *, the credit which ariſes

* *The unoccupied lands are ſold by the ſtate for about ſix guineas, inclusive of all charges, per hundred acres. But as moſt of the lands that are ſettled, are procured from perſons who had purchaſed them from the ſtate, they are ſold to the firſt ſettler for a much higher price. The quality of the ſoil; its vicinity to mills, court-houſes, places of worſhip, and navigable water: the diſtance of land carriage to the ſea-ports of Philadelphia or Baltimore, and the nature of the roads, all influence the price of land to the firſt ſettler. The quantity of cleared land, and the nature of the improvements, added to all the above circumſtances, influence the price of farms to the ſecond and third ſettlers. Hence the price*

rifes from prudence, and the fafety from our courts of law, of every pecies of property, render the bleffings which I have defcribed, objects within the reach of every man.

From a review of the three different fpecies of fettlers, it appears, that here are certain regular ftages which mark the progrefs from the favage o civilized life. The firft fettler is nearly related to an Indian in his manners. In the fecond, the Indian manners are more diluted. It is in he third fpecies of fettlers only, that we behold civilization completed. t is to the third fpecies of fettlers only, that it is proper to apply the erm of *farmers*.

While we record the vices of the firft and fecond fettlers, it is but juft o mention their virtues likewife. Their mutual wants produce mutual dependence: hence they are kind and friendly to each other—their foliary fituation makes vifitors agreeable to them; hence they are hofpitable to ftrangers; their want of money (for they raife but little more than is neceffary to fupport their families) has made it neceffary for them o aſſociate for the purpofes of building houfes, cutting their grain, and the like. This they do in turns for each other, without any other pay than the pleafures which ufually attend a country frolic. Perhaps, what I have called virtues, are rather *qualities* arifing from neceffity, and the peculiar ftate of fociety in which thefe people live. Virtue fhould, in all cafes, be the offfpring of principle.

I do not pretend to fay, that this mode of fettling farms in Pennfylvania is univerfal. I have known fome inftances where the firft fettler has performed the improvements of the fecond, and yielded to the third. I have known a few inftances likewife, of men of enterprizing fpirits, who have fettled in the wilderneſs, and who, in the courfe of a fingle life, have advanced through all the intermediate ftages of improvement that I have mentioned, and produced all thofe conveniencies which have been aſcribed to the third fpecies of fettlers; thereby refembling, in their exploits, not only the pioneers and light-infantry, but the main body of an army. There are inftances, likewife, where the firft fettlement has been improved by the fame family, in hereditary fucceffion, till it has reached the third ftage of cultivation. There are many fpacious ſtone houfes, and highly cultivated farms in the neighbouring counties of the city of Philadelphia, which are poſſeſſed by the grandſons and great-grandſons of men who accompanied William Penn acroſs the ocean, and who laid the foundation of the preſent improvements of their poſterity, in ſuch cabins as have been deſcribed.

price of land to the firſt ſettler is from a quarter of a guinea to two guineas per acre; and the price of farms is from one guinea to ten guineas per acre, to the ſecond and third ſettlers, according as the land is varied by the beforementioned circumſtances. When the firſt ſettler is unable to purchaſe, he often takes a tract of land for ſeven years on a leaſe, and contracts, inſtead of paying a rent in caſh, to clear fifty acres of land, to build a log cabin, and a barn, and to plant an orchard on it. This tract, after the expiration of this leaſe, ſells or rents for a conſiderable profit.

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This paſſion, ſtrange and new as it may appear to an European, is wiſely calculated for the extenſion of population in America: and this it does, not only by promoting the increaſe of the human ſpecies in new ſettlements, but in the old ſettlement likewiſe. While the degrees of induſtry and knowledge in agriculture, in our country, are proportioned to farms of from 75 to 300 acres, there will be a languor in population, as ſoon as farmers multiply beyond the number of farms of the above dimenſions. To remove this languor, which is kept up alike by the increaſe of the price, and the diviſion of farms, a migration of part of the community becomes abſolutely neceſſary. And as this part of the community often conſiſts of the idle and extravagant, who eat without working, their removal, by increaſing the facility of ſubſiſtence to the frugal and induſtrious who remain behind, naturally increaſes the number of people, juſt as the cutting off the ſuckers of an apple-tree increaſes the ſize of the tree and the quantity of fruit.

I have only to add upon this ſubject, that the migrants from Pennſylvania always travel to the ſouthward. The ſoil and climate of the weſtern parts of Virginia, North and ſouth Carolina, and Georgia, afford a more eaſy ſupport to lazy farmers, than the ſtubborn but durable ſoil of Pennſylvania. *Here* our ground requires deep and repeated ploughing to render it fruitful; *there* ſcratching the ground once or twice affords tolerable crops. In Pennſylvania, the length and coldneſs of the winter makes it neceſſary for the farmers to beſtow a large ſhare of their labour in providing for, and feeding their cattle; but in the ſouthern ſtates, cattle find paſture during the greateſt part of the winter, in the fields or woods. For theſe reaſons, the greateſt part of the weſtern counties of the ſtates that have been mentioned, are ſettled by original inhabitants of Pennſylvania. During the late war, the militia of Orange county, in North Carolina, were enrolled, and their number amounted to 3500, *every* man of whom had migrated from Pennſylvania. From this you will ſee, that our ſtate is the great outport of the United States for Europeans; and that, after performing the office of a ſieve, by detaining all thoſe people who poſſeſs the ſtamina of induſtry and virtue, it allows a paſſage to the reſt, to thoſe ſtates which are accommodated to their habits of indolence and vice.

I ſhall conclude this letter by remarking, that in the mode of extending population and agriculture, which I have deſcribed, we behold a new ſpecies of war. The *third* ſettler may be viewed as a conqueror. The weapons with which he atchieves his conqueſts, are the implements of huſbandry: and the virtues which direct them, are induſtry and œconomy. Idleneſs, extravagance and ignorance fly before him. Happy would it be for mankind, if the kings of Europe would adopt this mode of extending their territories: it would ſoon put an end to the dreadful connection, which has exiſted in every age, between war and poverty, and between conqueſt and deſolation *.'

'Theſe obſervations are equally applicable to the progreſs of the ſettlements in all new countries.

* See Col. Mag. Vol. I. p. 117.

Religion.

Religion.] We have already mentioned the prevailing religious ſects in this ſtate. A particular account of ſome of their peculiar cuſtoms and tenets will here be expected.

Of the great variety of religious denominations in Pennſylvania, the FRIENDS or QUAKERS are the moſt numerous. George Fox is called the Father of this religious ſect, becauſe he firſt collected them into a ſociety in England, about the middle of the 17th century. The true appellation of theſe people is FRIENDS; that of QUAKERS was early and unjuſtly given them by way of contempt. They came over to America as early as 1656, but were not indulged the free exerciſe of their religion in New-England *.

They were the firſt ſettlers of Pennſylvania in 1682, under William Penn, and have ever ſince flouriſhed in the free enjoyment of their religion. They believe that God has given to all men ſufficient *light* to work their ſalvation, unleſs it be reſiſted; that this light is as extenſive as the ſeed of ſin, and ſaves thoſe who have not the outward means of ſalvation; that this light is a divine principle, in which dwells God the Father, Son, and Holy Ghoſt. They maintain that the ſcriptures are not the principal ground of all truth and knowledge; nor yet the primary rule of faith and manners; but becauſe they give a true teſtimony of the firſt foundation, they are and may be eſteemed a ſecondary rule, ſubordinate to the Spirit, from whom they derive all their excellence. They believe that immediate revelation has not ceaſed, but that a meaſure of the Spirit is given to every perſon. That as by the light or gift of God, all ſpiritual knowledge is received, thoſe who have this gift, whether male or female, though without human commiſſion or learning, ought to preach; and to preach freely, as they have freely received the gift. All true and acceptable worſhip of God, they maintain, is by the inward and immediate moving of his Spirit; and that water baptiſm and the Lord's ſupper were commanded only for a time. They neither give titles, nor uſe compliments in their converſation or writings, believing that *whatſoever is more than yea, yea, and nay, nay, cometh of evil.* They conſcientiouſly avoid, as unlawful, kneeling, bowing, or uncovering the head to any perſon. They diſcard all ſuperfluities in dreſs or equipage; all games, ſports, and plays, as unbecoming the chriſtian. 'Swear not at all' is an article of their creed, literally obſerved in its utmoſt extent. They believe it unlawful, to fight in any caſe whatever; and think that if their enemy *ſmite them on the one cheek, they ought to turn to him the other alſo* †. They are generally honeſt, punctual, and even punctilious in their dealings; provident for the neceſſities of their poor; friends to humanity, and of courſe enemies to ſlavery; ſtrict in their diſcipline; careful in the obſervance even of the punctilios in dreſs, ſpeech and manners, which their religion enjoins; faithful in

* *See Hiſt. of Maſſachuſetts and Connecticut.*

† *During the late war, ſome of their number, contrary to this article of their faith, thought it their duty to take up arms in defence of their country. This laid the foundation of a ſeceſſion from their brethren, and they now form a ſeparate congregation in Philadelphia, by the name of the 'Reſiſting or fighting Quakers.'*

the

the education of their children; industrious in their several occupations. In short, whatever peculiarities and mistakes those of other denominations have supposed they have fallen into, in point of religious doctrines, they have proved themselves to be good citizens.

Next to the Quakers, the PRESBYTERIANS are the most numerous; concerning whom we have nothing to add to what we have already said under New-York. (page 268.)

The protestant EPISCOPAL CHURCH of New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia and South-Carolina, met in convention at Philadelphia, October 1785, and revised the book of common prayer, and administration of the sacraments, and other rites and ceremonies, and published and proposed the book, thus revised, for the use of the church. This revision was made in part, in order to render the liturgy consistent with the American revolution, and the constitutions of the several states. In this they have discovered their liberality and their patriotism. In Pennsylvania and the southern states this revised book is pretty generally used by the episcopal churches. In New-York and New-Jersey it has not been adopted.

There are upwards of sixty ministers of the LUTHERAN and CALVINIST religion, who are of German extraction, now in this state; all of whom have one or more congregations under their care; and many of them preach in splendid and expensive churches: and yet the first Lutheran minister, who arrived in Pennsylvania about forty years ago, was alive in 1787, and probably is still, as was also the second Calvinistical minister.

The Lutherans do not differ, in any thing essential, from the Episcopalians; nor do the Calvinists from the Presbyterians.

The MORAVIANS are of German extraction. Of this religion there are about 1300 souls in Pennsylvania; viz. between 500 and 600 in Bethlehem; 450 in Nazareth; and upwards of 300 at Litiz, in Lancaster county. They call themselves the "United Brethren of the Protestant Episcopal church.' They are called Moravians, because the first settlers in the English dominions were chiefly emigrants from Moravia. These were the remnant and genuine descendants of the church of the ancient United Brethren, established in Bohemia and Moravia, as early as the year 1456. About the middle of the last century, they left their native country, to avoid persecution, and to enjoy liberty of conscience, and the free exercise of the religion of their forefathers. They were received in Saxony, and other Protestant dominions, and were encouraged to settle among them, and were joined by many serious people of other denominations. They adhere to the Augustan Confession of Faith, which was drawn up by the Protestant divines at the time of the reformation in Germany, in the year 1530, and presented at the diet of the empire at Augsburgh; and which, at that time, contained the doctrinal system of all the established Protestant churches. They retain the discipline of their ancient church, and make use of Episcopal ordination, which has been handed down to them in a direct line of succession for more than three hundred years*.

* *See David Crantz Hist. of 'The ancient and modern United Brethren's church, translated from the German, by the Rev. Benjamin La Trobe. London, 1780.'*

As

As to their doctrinal tenets, and the practical inferences thence deduced, they appear to be *essentially* right, and such as will not be excepted against by any candid and liberal person who has made himself acquainted with them. Those who wish to obtain a thorough and impartial knowledge of their religious sentiments and customs, may see them excellently summed up in a plain, but nervous stile, in 'An exposition of Christian Doctrine, as taught in the Protestant church of the United Brethern, written in German by A. G. SPANGENBERG; and translated and published in English in 1784.' By this book nothing appears but that they are thorough in the doctrines of grace, as they are obviously exhibited in the Old and New Testament. They profess to live in strict obedience to the ordinances of Christ, such as the observation of the sabbath, infant baptism, and the Lord's Supper; and in addition to these, they practise 'The Foot-washing, the Kiss of Love, and the use of the Lot;' for which their reasons, if not conclusive, are yet plausible.

They were introduced into America by Count Zinzendorf, and settled at Bethlehem, which is their principal settlement in America, as early as 1741. The following authentic descriptions of their several settlements in this state, which was obligingly sent me by one of their own number, will afford the reader a just idea of the uncommon regularity, industry, ingenuity, and œconomy which characterize these people.

Bethlehem is situated on the river Lehigh, a western branch of the Delaware, fifty-three miles north of Philadelphia, in lat. 40° 37'. The town being built partly on a high rising ground, and partly on the lower banks of the Manakes, (a fine creek, which affords trout and other fish) has a very pleasant and healthy situation, and is frequently visited in the summer season by gentry from different parts. The prospect is not extensive, being bounded very near by a chain of the Lehigh hills. To the northward is a tract of land called the *dry lands*.

In the year 1787, the number of the inhabitants amounted to between 500 and 600, and the houses were about 60 in number, mostly good strong buildings of limestone.

Besides the church, or public meeting-hall, there are three large spacious buildings, viz.

1. The single brethern's, or young men's house, facing the main-street or public road. Here the greatest part of the single tradesmen, journeymen, and apprentices of the town are boarded at a moderate rate, under the inspection of an elder and warden, and have, besides the public meetings, their house-devotions, morning and evening prayers. Different trades are carried on in the house for the benefit of the same.

2. The single sister's, or young women's house, where they live under the care of female inspectors. Such as are not employed in private families, earn their bread mostly by spinning, sewing, fine needle-work, knitting, and other female occupations.

Though this house has its particular regulations to preserve order and decorum, and may perhaps bear some resemblance to a nunnery, (being sometimes improperly so called) yet the plan is very different. The ladies are at liberty to go about their business in the town, or to take a walk for recreation; and some are employed in private families, or live

with their parents; neither are they bound to remain in the ſingle ſtate, for every year ſome of them enter into the married ſtate.

As to their almoſt uniform dreſs, the women in general, for the ſake of avoiding extravagance, and the follies of faſhion, have hitherto kept to a particular ſimple dreſs, introduced among them in Germany many years ago.

3. The houſe for the widow women, where ſuch as have not a houſe of their own, or means to have their own houſe furniſhed, live nearly in the ſame way as do the ſingle ſiſters. Such as are poor, infirm, and ſuperannuated, are aſſiſted or maintained by the congregation, as is the caſe with other members of the ſame, that are not able to obtain ſubſiſtence for themſelves.

There is, beſides, an inſtitution of a ſociety of married men, begun ſince the year 1770, for the ſupport of their widows. A conſiderable fund or principal has been raiſed by them, the intereſt of which, as well as the yearly contributions of the members, is regularly divided among the widows, whoſe huſbands have been members of the inſtitution.

In a houſe adjoining the church, is the ſchool for girls; and, ſince the year 1787, a boarding ſchool for young ladies from different parts, who are inſtructed in reading and writing, (both Engliſh and German) grammar, arthmetic, hiſtory, geography, needle-work, muſic, &c.

The miniſter of the place has the ſpecial care and inſpection of this, as well as of the boys ſchool, which is kept in a ſeparate houſe, fitted to that purpoſe, and are taught reading and writing in both languages, the rudiments of the Latin tongue, arithmetic, &c.

Beſides the different houſes for private tradeſmen, mechanics, and others, there is a public tavern at the north end of the town, with pretty good accommodations; alſo a ſtore, with a general aſſortment of goods; an apothecary's ſhop; a large farm-yard; and on the lower part, on Manakes creek, is a large tan-yard, a currier's and dyer's ſhop, a griſt-mill, fulling-mill, oil-mill, and ſaw-mill; and on the banks of the Lehigh, a brewery.

The town is ſupplied with good water from a ſpring, which being in the lower part of the town, is raiſed up the hill by a machine of a very ſimple conſtruction, to the height of upwards of 100 feet, into a reſervoir, whence it is conducted by pipes into the ſeveral ſtreets and public buildings of the town.

The ferry acroſs the river is of ſuch particular contrivance, that a flat, large enough to carry a team of ſix horſes, runs on a ſtrong rope, fixed and ſtretched acroſs; and, by the mere force of the ſtream, without any other aſſiſtance, croſſes the river backwards and forwards; the flat being always put in an oblique direction, with its foremoſt end verging towards the line deſcribed by the rope.

The greater part of the inhabitants, as well as the people in the neighbourhood, being of German extraction, this language is more in uſe than the Engliſh. The latter, however, is cultivated in the ſchools, and divine ſervice performed in both languages.

Nazareth is ten miles north from Bethlehem, and ſixty-three north from Philadelphia. It is a tract of good land, containing about 5000 acres, purchaſed originally by the Rev. Mr. George Whiteſield, in 1740, and

and ſold two years after to the brethren. The town was laid out almoſt in the centre of this tract, in 1772. Two ſtreets croſs each other at right angles, and form a ſquare in the middle, of 340 by 200 feet. The largeſt building is a ſtone houſe, erected in 1755, named Nazareth-hall, 98 feet by 46 long, and 54 in height. In the lowermoſt ſtory is a ſpacious meeting-hall, or church; the upper part of the houſe is chiefly fitted for a boarding ſchool, where youth, from different parts, are under the care and inſpection of the miniſter of the place and ſeveral tutors, and are inſtructed in the Engliſh, German, Latin, and French languages; in hiſtory, geography, book-keeping, mathematics, muſic, drawing, and other ſciences. The front of the houſe faces a large ſquare open to the ſouth, adjoining a fine piece of meadow ground, and commands a moſt beautiful and extenſive proſpect. Another elegant building on the eaſt ſide of Nazareth-hall is inhabited by ſingle ſiſters, who have the ſame regulations and way of living as thoſe in Bethlehem. Beſides their principal manufactory for ſpinning and twiſting cotton, they have lately begun to draw wax tapers.

At the ſouth-weſt corner of the aforeſaid ſquare, in the middle of the town, is the ſingle brethren's houſe; and on the eaſt-ſouth-eaſt corner a ſtore. On the ſouthernmoſt end of the ſtreet is a good tavern. The houſes are, a few excepted, built of lime ſtone, one or two ſtories high, inhabited by tradeſmen and mechanics, moſtly of German extraction. The inhabitants are ſupplied with water conveyed to them by pipes from a fine ſpring near the town. The place is noted for having an exceedingly pleaſant ſituation, and enjoying a very pure and ſalubrious air. The number of inhabitants in the town, and farms belonging to it, (Schoeneck included) conſtituting one congregation, and meeting for divine ſervice on Sundays and holidays at Nazareth-hall, was, in the year 1788, about 450.

Litiz is in Lancaſter county, and Warwick townſhip; eight miles from Lancaſter, and ſeventy miles weſt from Philadelphia. This ſettlement was begun in the year 1757. There are now, beſides an elegant church, and the houſe of the ſingle brethren and ſingle ſiſters, which form a large ſquare, a number of houſes for private families, with a ſtore and tavern, all in one ſtreet. There is alſo a good farm and ſeveral mill works belonging to the place. The number of inhabitants, including thoſe that belong to Litiz congregation, living on their farms in the neighbourhood, amounted, in 1787, to upwards of 300.

Such is the Moravian intereſt in Pennſylvania. Their other ſettlements in America, are at Hope, in New-Jerſey, already deſcribed, and at Wachovia, on Yadkin river, in North-Carolina, which will be deſcribed in its proper place. Beſides theſe regular ſettlements, which are formed by ſuch only as are members of the brethren's church, and live together in good order and harmony, there are, in different parts of Pennſylvania, Maryland, and New-Jerſey, and in the cities and towns of New-York, Pennſylvania, Lancaſter, York-town, &c. congregations of the brethren, who have their own church and miniſter, and hold the ſame principles, and doctrinal tenets, and church rites and ceremonies, as the former, though their local ſituation does not admit of ſuch particular regulations as are peculiar to the regular ſettlements.

In Pennſylvania there are ſixteen congregations of Engliſh BAPTISTS. The doctrines, diſcipline, and worſhip of theſe, are ſimilar to thoſe of the New-England Baptiſts. In 1770, the number of this denomination of babtiſts was reckoned at 650 families, making, as was ſuppoſed, 3,250 ſouls, who were divided into ten churches, who had eighteen meeting-houſes, and eleven miniſters. Beſides theſe there are a few Sabbatarian babtiſts, who keep the ſeventh day as holy time, and who are the remains of the Keithian or Quaker babtiſts, and a number of Tunkers and Mennoniſts, both of whom are profeſſionably babtiſts, and are of German extraction.

The TUNKERS are ſo called in deriſion, from the word *tunken, to put a morſel in ſauce*. The Engliſh word that conveys the proper meaning, of Tunkers is *Sops* or *Dippers*. They are alſo called Tumblers, from the manner in which they perform babtiſm, which is by putting the perſon, while kneeling, head firſt under water, ſo as to reſemble the motion of the body in the action of tumbling. The Germans ſound the letters *t* and *b* like *d* and *p*; hence the words Tunkers and Tumblers have been corruptly written Dunkers and Dumplers.

The firſt appearing of theſe people in America, was in the fall of the year 1719, when about twenty families landed in Philadelphia, and diſperſed themſelves in various parts of Pennſylvania. They are what are called General Baptiſts, and hold to general redemption and general ſalvation. They uſe great plainneſs of dreſs and language, and will neither ſwear, nor fight, nor go to law, nor take intereſt for the money they lend. They commonly wear their beards—keep the firſt day Sabbath, except one congregation—have the Lord's Supper, with its ancient attendants of love-feaſts, with waſhing of feet, kiſs of charity, and right hand of fellowſhip. They anoint the ſick with oil for their recovery, and uſe the trine immerſion, with laying on of hands and prayer, even while the perſon baptiſed is in the water. Their church government and diſcipline are the ſame with thoſe of the Engliſh baptiſts, except that every brother is allowed to ſpeak in the congregation; and their beſt ſpeaker is uſually ordained to be their miniſter. They have deacons, deaconeſſes (from among their ancient widows) and exhorters, who are all licenſed to uſe their gifts ſtatedly. On the whole, notwithſtanding their peculiarities, they appear to be humble, well-meaning Chriſtians, and have acquired the character of the *Harmleſs* Tunkers.

Their principal ſettlement is at Ephrata, ſometimes called Tunkerstown, in Lancaſter county, ſixty miles weſtward of Philadelphia. It conſiſts of about forty buildings, of which three are places of worſhip: One is called Sharon, and adjoin's the ſiſters apartment as a chapel; another, belonging to the brother's apartment, called Bethany. To theſe the brethren and ſiſters reſort, ſeparately, to worſhip morning and evening, and ſometimes in the night. The third is a common church, called Zion, where all in the ſettlement meet once a week for public worſhip. The brethren have adopted the White Friars' dreſs, with ſome alterations; the ſiſters, that of the nuns; and both, like them, have taken the vow of celibacy. All, however, do not keep the vow. When they marry, they leave their cells and go among the married people. They ſubſiſt by cultivating their lands, by attending a printing-office, a griſt mill, a paper

a paper mill, an oil mill, &c. and the ſiſters by ſpinning, weaving, ſewing, &c. They, at firſt, ſlept on board couches, but now on beds, and have otherwiſe abated much of their former ſeverity. This is the congregation who keep the ſeventh day Sabbath. Their ſinging is charming, owing to the pleaſantneſs of their voices, the variety of parts, and the devout manner of performance. Beſides this congregation at Ephrata, there were, in 1770, fourteen others in various other parts of Pennſylvania, and ſome in Maryland. The whole, excluſive of thoſe in Maryland, amounted to upwards of 200 ſouls.

The MENNONISTS derive their name from Menno Simon, a native of Witmars in Germany, a man of learning, born in the year 1505, in the time of the reformation by Luther and Calvin. He was a famous Roman Catholic preacher till about the year 1531, when he became a Baptiſt. Some of his followers came into Pennſylvania from New York, and ſettled at Germantown, as early as 1692. This is at preſent their principal congregation, and the mother of the reſt. Their whole number, in 1770, in Pennſylvania, was upwards of 4000, divided into thirteen churches, and forty-two congregations, under the care of fifteen ordained miniſters, and fifty-three licenſed preachers.

The Mennoniſts do not, like the Tunkers, hold the doctrine of general ſalvation; yet like them, they will neither ſwear nor fight, nor bear any civil office, nor go to law, nor take intereſt for the money they lend, though many break this laſt rule. Some of them wear their beards; waſh each other's feet, &c. and all uſe plainneſs of ſpeech and dreſs. Some have been expelled their ſociety for wearing buckles in their ſhoes, and having pocket holes in their coats. Their church government is democratical. They call themſelves the Harmleſs Chriſtians, Revengeleſs Chriſtians, and Weaponleſs Chriſtians. They are Babtiſts rather in name than in fact; for they do not uſe immerſion. Their common mode of baptiſm is this: The perſon to be baptized kneels; the miniſter holds his hands over him, into which the deacon pours water, which runs through upon the head of the perſon kneeling. After this, follow impoſition of hands and prayer.

Literary, Humane, and other uſeful Societies.] Theſe are more numerous, and flouriſhing in Pennſylvania, than in any of the Thirteen States. The names of theſe improving inſtitutions, the times when they were eſtabliſhed, and a ſummary of the benevolent deſigns they were intended to accompliſh, will be mentioned in their order.

1. THE AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY, HELD AT PHILADELPHIA, FOR PROMOTING USEFUL KNOWLEDGE. This ſociety was formed January 2d, 1769, by the union of two other literary ſocieties that had ſubſiſted for ſome time in Philadelphia; and were created one body corporate and politic, with ſuch powers, privileges, and immunities as are neceſſary for anſwering the valuable purpoſes which the ſociety had originally in view, by a charter, granted by the commonwealth of Pennſylvania, on the 15th of March, 1780. This ſociety have already publiſhed two very valuable volumes of their tranſactions; one in 1771, the other in 1786.

In 1771, this ſociety conſiſted of nearly 300 members; and upwards of 120 have ſince been added; a large proportion of which are foreign-

ers

ers of the first distinction in Europe. This is an evidence of the increasing respectability and improvement of the society.

Their charter allows them to hold lands, gifts, &c. to the amount of the clear yearly value of ten thousand bushels of wheat. The number of members is not limited.

2. The Society for promoting political inquiries; consisting of fifty members, instituted in February, 1787.

3. The College of Physicians, instituted in 1787, for the promotion of medical, anatomical and chemical knowledge.

4. The Union Library Company of Philadelphia, which was begun in 1731, incorporated by the proprietors of the province in 1742, and united with other companies, upon a similar establishment, in 1769. The number of members in 1773 was upwards of 400. They possess (except the library of Harvard college) the most valuable collection of books in America, consisting of upwards of 7000 volumes, which are kept in Carpenters Hall. Under the same roof they have a museum, containing a collection of curious medals, manuscripts, ancient relicks, fossils, &c. and a philosophical apparatus.

5. The Pennsylvania Hospital, a humane institution, which was first meditated in 1750, and carried into effect by means of a liberal subscription of about £3000, and by the assistance of the assembly, who in 1751, granted as much more for the purpose. The present building was begun in 1754, and finished in 1756. This hospital is under the direction of twelve managers, chosen annually, and is visited every year by a committee of the assembly. The accounts of the managers are submitted to the inspection of the legislature. Six physicians attend *gratis*, and generally prescribe twice or three times in a week, in their turns. This hospital is the general receptacle of lunaticks and madmen, and of those affected with other disorders, and are unable to support themselves. Here they are humanely treated, and well provided for.

6. The Philadelphia Dispensary, *for the medical relief of the poor*. This benevolent institution was established on the 12th of April, 1786, and is supported by annual subscriptions of thirty-five shillings each person. No less than 1800 patients were admitted, within sixteen months after the first opening of the dispensary. It is under the direction of twelve managers, and six physicians, all of whom attend *gratis*. This institution exhibits an application of something like the mechanical powers, to the purposes of humanity. The greatest quantity of good is produced in this way with the least money. Five hundred pounds a year defrays all the expences of the institution. The poor are taken care of in their own houses, and provide every thing for themselves, except medicines, cordial drinks, &c.

7. The Pennsylvania Society *for promoting the* Abolition of Slavery, *and the relief of* Free Negroes *unlawfully held in bondage*. This society was begun in 1774, and enlarged on the 23d of April, 1787. The officers of the society consist of a president, two vice-presidents, two secretaries, a treasurer, four counsellors, an electing committee of twelve, and an acting committee of six members; all of whom, except the last, are to be chosen annually by ballot, on the first Monday in January. The society meet quarterly, and each member contributes ten shillings annually,

annually, in quarterly payments, towards defraying its contingent expences.

The legiſlature of this ſtate have favoured the humane deſigns of this ſociety, by 'An Act for the gradual Abolition of Slavery;' paſſed on the 1ſt of March, 1780; wherein, among other things, it is ordained, that no perſon born within the ſtate, after the paſſing of the act, ſhall be conſidered as a ſervant for life; and all perpetual ſlavery is, by this act, for ever aboliſhed. The act provides, that thoſe who would, in caſe this act had not been made, have been born ſervants or ſlaves, ſhall be deemed ſuch, till they ſhall attain to the age of twenty-eight years; but they are to be treated in all reſpects as ſervants bound by indenture for four years.

8. The Society of the United Brethren *for propagating the Goſpel among the Heathens*, inſtituted in 1787, to be held ſtatedly at Bethlehem. An act, incorporating this ſociety, and inveſting it with all neceſſary powers and privileges for accompliſhing its pious deſigns, was paſſed by the legiſlature of the ſtate, on the 27th of February, 1788. They can hold lands, houſes, &c. to the annual amount of two thouſand pounds.

Theſe pious *Brethren*, commonly called Moravians, began a miſſion among the Mahikan, Wampano, Delaware, Shawanoe, Nantikoke, and other Indians, near fifty years ago, and were ſo ſucceſsful as to add more than one thouſand ſouls to the Chriſtian church by baptiſm. Six hundred of theſe have died in the Chriſtian faith; about 300 live with the miſſionaries near Lake Erie, and the reſt are either dead or apoſtates in the wilderneſs*.

9. *The* Pennsylvania Society, *for the Encouragement of Manufactures and uſeful Arts*, inſtituted in 1787, open for the reception of every citizen of the United-States, which will fulfil the engagements of a member of the ſame. The ſociety is under the direction of a preſident, four vice-preſidents, and twelve managers, beſides ſubordinate officers. Each member, on his admiſſion, pays ten ſhillings at leaſt into the *general fund*; and the ſame ſum annually, till he ſhall ceaſe to be a member. Beſides this, they have a *manufacturing fund*, made up of ſubſcriptions of not leſs than ten pounds, for the purpoſe of eſtabliſhing factories in ſuitable places, for the employment of the induſtrious poor. The ſubſcribers have all the profits ariſing from the buſineſs. The meetings of this ſociety are held quarterly.

Beſides theſe, there is a Society for alleviating the Miseries of Prisons; and a Humane Society, for recovering and reſtoring to life the bodies of drowned perſons; inſtituted in 1770, under the direction of thirteen managers.

Alſo, an *Agricultural Society*; *a Society for German Emigrants*; *a Marine Society*, conſiſting of Captains of veſſels; *a Charitable Society for the Support of the Widows and Families of Preſbyterian Clergymen*; *and St. George's, St. Patrick's, and St. Andrew's Charitable Societies*; *alſo the Society of Free and Accepted Maſons.*

* *An affecting hiſtory of the Brethren's miſſion among the Indians, will ſhortly be publiſhed.*

College,

Colleges, Academies, and Schools.] From the enterprizing and literary ſpirit of the Pennſylvanians, we ſhould naturally conclude, what is fact, that theſe are numerous.

In Philadelphia is a UNIVERSITY, founded during the war. Its funds were partly given by the ſtate, and partly taken from the old college of Philadelphia.

A medical ſchool, which was founded in 1765, is attached to the univerſity; and has profeſſors in all the branches of medicine, who prepare the ſtudents (whoſe number, yearly, is 50 or 60) for degrees in that ſcience.

DICKINSON COLLEGE, at Carliſle, 120 miles weſtward of Philadelphia, was founded in 1783, and has a principal—three profeſſors—a philoſophical apparatus—a library, conſiſting of nearly 3000 volumes—four thouſand pounds in funded certificates, and 10,000 acres of land; the laſt, the donation of the ſtate. In 1787, there were eighty ſtudents belonging to this college. This number is annually increaſing. It was named after his excellency John Dickinſon, formerly preſident of this ſtate.

In 1787, a college was founded at Lancaſter, 66 miles from Philadelphia, and honoured with the name of FRANKLIN COLLEGE, after his excellency Dr. Franklin. This college is for the Germans; in which they may educate their youth in their own language, and in conformity to their own habits. The Engliſh language, however, is taught in it. Its endowments are nearly the ſame as thoſe of Dickinſon college. Its truſtees conſiſt of Lutherans, Calviniſts, and Engliſh; of each an equal number. The principal is a Lutheran, and the vice-principal is a Calviniſt. This college, as it concentres the whole German intereſt, and has ample funds to ſupport profeſſors in every branch of ſcience, has flattering proſpects of growing importance and extenſive utility.

In Philadelphia, beſides the univerſity and medical ſchool already mentioned, there is the PROTESTANT EPISCOPAL ACADEMY, a very flouriſhing inſtitution—THE ACADEMY FOR YOUNG LADIES—Another for the Friends or Quakers, and one for the Germans; beſides five free ſchools, one for the people called Quakers, one for Preſbyterians, one for Catholics, one for Germans, and one for Negroes. The Epiſcopalians have an academy at York-town, in York-county. There is alſo an academy at German-town, another at Pittſburgh, and another at Waſhington; theſe are endowed by donations from the legiſlature, and by liberal contributions of individuals.

The ſchools for young men and women in Bethlehem and Nazareth, under the direction of the people called Moravians, have already been mentioned, and are decidedly upon the beſt eſtabliſhment of any ſchools in America. Beſides theſe, there are private ſchools in different parts of the ſtate; and to promote the education of poor children, the ſtate have appropriated a large tract of land for the eſtabliſhment of free ſchools. A great proportion of the labouring people among the Germans and Iriſh, are, however, extremely ignorant.

Chief Towns.] Philadelphia is the Capital, not only of this, but of the United-States. It is ſituated on the weſt bank of the river Delaware, on an extenſive plain, about 118 miles (ſome ſay more) from the ſea. The length

length of the city east and west, that is, from the Delaware to the Schuylkill, upon the original plan of Mr. Penn, is 10,300 feet, and the breadth, north and south, is 4837 feet. Not two fifths of the plot covered by the city charter is yet built. The inhabitants, however, have not confined themselves within the original limits of the city, but have built north and south along the Delaware, two miles in length. The longest street is Second-street, about 700 feet from Delaware river, and parallel to it. The circumference of that part of the city which is built, if we include Kensington on the north, and Southwark on the south, may be about five miles.

Market-street is 100 feet wide, and runs the whole length of the city from river to river. Near the middle, it is intersected at right angles by Broad-street, 113 feet wide, running nearly north and south, quite across the city.

Between Delaware river and Broad-street are 14 streets, nearly equidistant, running parallel with Broad-street, across the city; and between Broad-street and the Schuylkill, there are nine streets, equidistant from each other. Parallel to Market-street are eight other streets running east and west from river to river, and intersect the cross streets at right angles; all these streets are 50 feet wide, except Arch-street, which is 65 feet wide. All the streets which run north and south, except Broad-street mentioned above, are 50 feet wide. There were four squares of eight acres each, one at each corner of the city, originally reserved for public and common uses. And in the centre of the city, where Broad-street and Market-street intersect each other, is a square of ten acres, reserved in like manner, to be planted with rows of trees for public walks.

The first street between Delaware river and the bank, is called Water-street. The next, on the top of the bank, is called Front-street; and west of this the streets are numbered, *second*, *third*, *fourth*, &c.

On the river Delaware, there are 16 public landings, at the distance of 4 or 500 feet from each other; and private wharfs sufficient for 200 sail of sea vessels to unload at a time; and room to build any necessary number. There are 10 public landings on the Schuylkill, which, as the town does not yet extend so far, are at present of no use.

Philadelphia was founded in 1682, by the celebrated William Penn, who, in October 1701, granted a charter, incorporating the town with the privilege of choosing a mayor, recorder, eight aldermen, twelve common-council men, a sheriff and clerk.

The city charter was vacated by the revolution, and has not been renewed under the new government. A bill for this purpose is now (Nov. 1788) depending before the legislature.

In 1749, the dwelling houses in the several wards in Philadelphia, were as follows.

South

South ſuburbs	150	High-ſtreet ward	147
Duck ward	245	North do.	196
Walnut do.	104	Mulberry do.	488
South do.	117	Upper Delaware do.	109
Cheſnut do.	110	Lower do. do.	110
Middle do.	238	North ſuburbs	62
	964		1112
			964
		Total	2076

At this time the number of inhabitants in the city were eſtimated at 11,000 whites, and 600 blacks. The number of churches were then as follows,

2 Preſbyterian,
2 Quaker,
1 Epiſcopalian,
1 Swediſh,
1 Baptiſt,
1 German Lutheran,
1 German Calviniſt,
1 Moravin,
1 Roman Catholic.

The following will give the reader an idea of the proportional numbers of the ſeveral religious denominations in Philadelphia.

An account of births and burials in the united churches of Chriſt-Church and St. Peter's in Philadelphia, from December 25, 1781, to December 25, 1782.

Chriſtened,	Males	189	Buried,	Males	110
	Females	185		Females	88
		374			198

Buried under one year	39	From 30 to 40	16
From 1 to 3	43	—— 40 — 50	10
—— 3 — 5	8	—— 50 — 60	11
—— 5 — 10	10	—— 60 — 70	20
—— 10 — 20	9	—— 70 — 80	9
—— 20 — 30	20	—— 80 — 90	3
Swedes chriſtenings	34	Burials	28
Moravians chriſtenings	5	Ditto	2
Firſt Preſbyterian burials	40	Baptiſts	18
2d do.	28	German Lutherans	219
3d do.	32	German reformed church	68
Quakers	102	Roman Catholicks	46
		Buried this year	820

Philadelphia now contains about 5000 houſes; in general handſomely built of brick; and 40,000 inhabitants, compoſed of almoſt all nations and religions. Their places for religious worſhip are as follows.

The

The Friends or Quakers, have	5*	The Swediſh Lutherans,	1†
The Preſbyterians,	6	The Moravians,	1
The Epiſcopalians	3	The Baptiſts,	1
The German Lutherans,	2	The Univerſal Baptiſts,	1
The German Calviniſts,	1	The Methodiſts,	1
The Catholics,	3	The Jews.	1

The other public buildings in the city, beſides the univerſity, academies, &c. already mentioned, are the following viz.

A ſtate-houſe and offices,
A city court-houſe,
A county court-houſe,
A carpenters hall,
A philoſophical ſociety's hall,
A diſpenſary,
A hoſpital and offices,
An alms-houſe,
A houſe of correction,
A public factory of linen, cotton and woollen,
A public obſervatory,
Three brick market-houſes,
A fiſh-market,
A public gaol,

The ſtate-houſe is in Cheſnut-ſtreet, between Fifth and Sixth ſtreets, and was erected in 1735. The building is rather magnificent than elegant. The ſtate-houſe yard is a neat, elegant, and ſpacious public walk, ornamented with rows of trees; but a high brick wall, which encloſes it, limits the proſpect.

In 1787, an elegant court-houſe was erected on the left of the ſtate-houſe; and on the right a philoſophical hall. Theſe add much to the beauty of the ſquare.

South of the ſtate-houſe is the public gaol, built of ſtone. It has a ground half ſtory, and two ſtories above it. Every apartment is arched with ſtone againſt fire and force. It is a hollow ſquare, 100 feet in front, and is the moſt elegant and ſecure building of the kind in America. To the gaol is annexed a work-houſe, with yards to each to ſeparate the ſexes, and criminals from debtors.

The hoſpital and poor-houſe, in which are upwards of 300 poor people, whether we conſider the buildings, or the deſigns for which they were erected, are unrivalled in America.

The German church, lately erected, is one of the moſt elegant churches in America. Mr. D. Taneberger, one of the united brethren's ſociety at Litiz, a great mechanical genius, is erecting a large organ, of more than thirty ſtops, for this church.

In Market-ſtreet, between Front and Fourth-ſtreets, is the principal market, built of brick, and is 1500 feet in length. This market, in reſpect to the quantity, the variety and neatneſs of the proviſions, is not equalled in America, and perhaps not exceeded in the world.

The Philadelphians are not ſo ſocial, nor perhaps ſo hoſpitable as the people in Boſton, Charleſton and New-York. Various cauſes have con-

* *One of theſe houſes is for thoſe Quakers who took up arms in defence of their country, in the late war, contrary to the eſtabliſhed principles of the Friends. They call themſelves* Free Quakers.

† *This is the oldeſt church in or near the city, and has lately been annexed to the Epiſcopal order.*

tributed

tributed to this difference, among which the moſt operative has been the prevalence of party ſpirit, which has been, and is carried to greater lengths in this city than in any other in America: Yet no city can boaſt of ſo many uſeful improvements in manufactures, in the mechanical arts, in the art of healing, and particularly in the ſcience of humanity. The tradeſmen and manufacturers have become ſo numerous, that they are beginning to aſſociate for mutual improvement, and to promote regularity and uniformity in their ſeveral occupations. The carpenters, the cordwainers, the taylors, the watch-makers, the joiners, and hair-dreſſers, have already aſſociated, and others are forming into companies upon the ſame plan.

The Philadelphians have exerted their endeavours, with happy and growing ſucceſs, to prevent the intemperate uſe of ſpirituous liquors. In accompliſhing this benevolent purpoſe, on which ſo much of the proſperity and glory of our empire depend, every good citizen in the union will cheerfully lend his aid and influence. As one important ſtep towards effecting their deſign, they are diſcountenancing diſtilleries, which are of courſe declining, and encouraging breweries, which are faſt increaſing. The increaſe of the conſumption of beer, in the courſe of a few years paſt, in every part of America, and particularly in Pennſylvania, has been aſtoniſhing. It has become a faſhionable drink, and it is not improbable but that in a few years it will come into univerſal uſe among all claſſes of people. In proportion as the uſe of beer increaſes, in the ſame proportion will the uſe of ſpirituous liquors decreaſe. This will be a happy exchange.

In ſhort, whether we conſider the convenient local ſituation, the ſize, the beauty, the variety and utility of the improvements in mechanics, in agriculture and manufactures, or the induſtry, the enterprize, the humanity and the abilities of the inhabitants of the city of Philadelphia, it merits to be viewed as the capital of the flouriſhing EMPIRE OF UNITED AMERICA.

LANCASTER is the largeſt inland town in America. It is the ſeat of juſtice in Lancaſter county, and ſtands on Coneſtogo creek, 66 miles, a little to the north of the weſt from Philadelphia. Its trade is already large; and muſt increaſe in proportion as the ſurrounding country populates. It contains about 900 houſes, beſides a moſt elegant courthouſe, a number of handſome churches and other public buildings, and about 4,500 ſouls.

CARLISLE is the ſeat of juſtice in Cumberland county, and is 120 miles weſtward of Philadelphia. It contains upwards of 1500 inhabitants, who live in near 300 ſtone houſes, and worſhip in three churches. They have alſo a court-houſe and a college. Thirty-four years ago, this ſpot was a wilderneſs, and inhabited by Indians and wild beaſts. A like inſtance of the rapid progreſs of the arts of civilized life is ſcarcely to be found in hiſtory.

PITTSBURGH, on the weſtern ſide of the Allegany mountains, is 320 miles weſtward of Philadelphia, is beautifully ſituated on a point of land between the Allegany and Monongahela rivers, and about a quarter of a mile above their confluence, in lat. 40° 26′ north. It contained in 1787, 140 houſes, and 700 inhabitants, who are Preſbyterians and Epiſcopalians,

copalians. The ſurrounding country is very hilly, but fertile, and well ſtored with excellent coal. The rivers abound with fine fiſh, ſuch as pike, perch, and cat-fiſh, which are all much larger than the ſame ſpecies on the eaſtern ſide of the mountains.

This town is laid out on Penn's plan, and is a thoroughfare for the incredible number of travellers from the eaſtern and middle ſtates, to the ſettlements on the Ohio, and increaſes with aſtoniſhing rapidity.

Trade, manufactures and agriculture.] On the ſubject of exports nothing can be furniſhed more accurate and complete, than what is given in the American Muſeum for September, 1788, which follows:

Exports from Philadelphia in the years 1765, 1771, 1772, 1773, 1784, 1787.

	1765	1771	1772	1773	1784	1787
Buſhels of wheat,	367,522	51,699	92,012	182,391	24,490	32,957
Barrels of flour,	148,887	252,744	284,872	265,967	201,365	193,720
Barrels of bread,	34,736	38,320	50,504	48,183	28,525	26,953
M. ſtaves and heading,	4,270	6,188	5,867	5,141	4,083	4,333
M. ſhingles,	2,114	1,937	1,765	5,254		
Buſhels of Indian corn	60,206	259,441	159,625	179,217	73,527	193,943
Tons of iron,	1,695	2,358	2,205	1,564	1,144	1,197
Boxes of ſoap,	1,644	2,936	3,231	3,743	1,733	1,544
M. hoops,	97	195	978	1,245		319
Hhds. of tobacco,	16					4,808
M. boards & ſcantling,	783	1,724	4,075	3,309	3,098	2,625
Barrels of beer,	1,288	1,236	1,798	1,394		604
Kegs of ſtarch,	238	349	1,033	700		220
Buſhels of flax-ſeed,	87,681	110,412	85,794	68,681	71,592	98,012
Packages of fur & ſkins	64					314
Pounds of do.		902	1,200	40		
Barrels of bees-wax,	35					161
Hogſheads of ditto,						170
Pounds of ditto,		29,261	50,140	64,546	46,585	1,347
Firkins of lard,	199	399	734	732	507	2,532
Firkins of butter,	1,501					
Barrels of beef & pork,	7,254	5,059	3,849	8,587	2,354	4,160
Barrels of hams,		778	782	1,062		1,062
Barrels of naval ſtores,		6,050	6,989	7,663		13,172
Walnut logs,		63	204	79		
Tons of lignum vitæ,		24	42	30		
Feet of mahogany,		108,441	142,962	63,255		
Tons of logwood,		169	425	195		
Cheſts of deer ſkins,		93	164	37		
Tons of pot-aſh,		161	66	13	6	5
Tons of pearl-aſh,		136	25	57		3
Cwt. brown ſugar,		1,185	5,198	2,578		
Pounds of loaf ſugar,		79,116	51,403	84,240		9,800
Gallons of melaſſes,		52,611	19,681	39,403		
Tons of wine,		24	118	68		
Gallons of oil,		5,544	10,584	4,536		1,500
Gallons of rum,		204,456	247,635	277,693		

Barrels

	1765	1771	1772	1773	1784	1787
Barrels of fish,		5,128	5,776	6,430		
Boxes sperma, candles,		683	1,004	514		
Boxes tallow candles,	1,202	873	1,078	1,165	1,288	702
Boxes of chocolate,		479	385	306		629
Cwt. of coffee,		501	296	1,639		
Bushels of salt,		64,468	42,803	39,192		
Pounds of cotton wool,		2,200	5,840	25,070		
Pounds of leather,		25,970	40,725	31,696	7,080	
Packages of ditto,						377
Sides of ditto,						970
Pounds of rice,		258,376	834,794	998,400		2,610,825

In the year 1787, besides the above articles, the following were exported:

Barrels of ship stuff,	1,443	Pounds of cheese,	29,472
Barrels of rye meal,	162	Barrels of herrings,	610
Casks of oat meal,	23	Barrels of mackerels,	174
Kegs of bread,	25,152	Quintals of dry fish,	4,718
Barrels of Indian meal,	14,710	Kegs of sturgeon,	363
Bushels of rye,	1,140	Barrels of salmon,	17
Bushels of barley,	306	Barrels of manhadden,	236
Bushels of oats,	7,421	Barrels of honey,	91
Barrels of peas and beans	919	Kegs of oysters,	48
Barrels of apples,	2,555	Packages of cyder,	225
Barrels of dried apples,	24	Barrels of porter,	262
Bushels of potatoes,	8,656	Hogsheads of country rum,	1,266
Bushels of turnips,	195	Oxen,	41
Bushels of onions,	4,373	Cows,	4
Barrels of beets,	12	Sheep,	145
Barrels of nuts,	185	Hogs,	34
Barrels of cranberries,	33	Geese,	65
Boat boards,	740	Tons of steel,	62
Windsor chairs,	5,731	Tons of castings,	16
Shaken hogsheads,	4,775	Stoves,	66
Sets of wheel timbers,	1,056	Anchors,	37
Pairs of wheels,	84	Stills and worms,	48
Oars,	1,400	Bricks,	423,469
Handspikes,	396	Bushels of lime,	468
Masts and spars,	355	Barrels of glue,	15
Coaches,	8	Barrels of manufactured tobacco,	78
Chariots,	4	Casks of snuff,	535
Phaetons,	9	Casks genseng,	1,168
Carriages of different kinds,	36	Bags of sarsaparilla,	8
Chaises,	40	Casks of indigo,	173
Kittareens,	10	Tierces of tallow,	24
Sulkeys,	7	Casks of linseed oil,	62
Waggons,	40	Casks of spirits of turpentine,	119
Wheelbarrows,	96	Boxes of hair powder,	118
Drays,	4	Barrels of ditto,	16
Ploughs,	22	Bushels of bran,	10,306

Harrow,

Harrow,	1	Packages of paper,	353
Turkeys,	48	Reams of ditto,	2,481
Boxes of muſtard,	42	Packages of paſte-boards,	62
Barrels of ſhip-bread,	26,953	Box of parchment,	1
Pumps,	4	Barrels of varniſh,	5
Boats,	15	Boxes of trees and plants,	20
Flaxſeed-ſcreens,	14	Packages of ſeeds and plants,	47
Cutting-boxes,	14	Pounds of ſaſſafras,	2,000
Carts,	26	Cheſts and caſks of ſnake-root,	34
Spinning-wheels,	30	Caſks of pink-root,	3
Corn-mills,	4	Boxes of eſſence of ſpruce,	250
Settees,	38	Bags of hops,	30
Dutch fans,	55	Caſks of clover ſeed,	11
Caſks of ſhip-blocks,	9	Bags of ditto,	7
Tons of oak bark,	45	Packages of harneſs,	10
Hogſheads of ditto,	48	Calves-ſkins,	72
Sifters,	286	Caſks of horn-tips,	15
Logs of hicory,	13	Sheets of iron,	16
Saddle trees,	247	Share-moulds,	1,233
Tons of nail-rods,	133	A quantity of cedar & earthen ware.	

The following remarks of a well informed citizen of Philadelphia, are given as a proper illuſtration of the foregoing accounts.

It is well known, that a conſiderable part of the ſouthern ſtates have been in the habit of receiving their ſupplies of foreign commodities through this city; and that, of conſequence, the tranſportation of theſe articles muſt have formed a conſiderable part of the commerce of this port. Many of theſe articles might be aſcertained with accuracy; whilſt the value and quantity of others could not, from their nature, be eſtimated, under our preſent export laws. But as the object here chiefly regards articles of American produce or manufacture, all others are excluded from the liſt of exports for 1787. It will be ſufficient to enumerate a few of the foreign articles, from which it will appear, that the obſervations on this head are ill founded. From Europe we import, among other articles, wines, brandy, geneva, ſalt, fruit, drugs, and dry goods of every kind; from the Weſt-Indies, rum, ſugar, coffee, cotton, and ſalt; and from the Eaſt-Indies, teas, ſpices, China ware, and dry goods; all of which articles are again exported to other parts of this continent, and the Weſt-Indies, to a very conſiderable amount.

On a compariſon of the exports of the laſt year, with thoſe of the former years in the foregoing table, it will appear, that many articles, of which a conſiderable value is now exported, were either not ſhipped at all, or to a very ſmall amount, in thoſe years, whilſt ſome others are conſiderably ſhort of the quantity then exported. The firſt of theſe facts may be attributed to the great improvements recently made in the agriculture and manufactures of this ſtate; whilſt the latter is in many inſtances to be accounted for, from cauſes rather beneficial than injurious to the proſperity of this country.

Much of the proviſions which were in the period antecedent to the late conteſt, ſhipped to foreign markets, is now conſumed by the numerous hands

hands employed in manufacturing these articles of raw materials, which were formerly shipped to Europe, and returned to us in a manufactured state. Of these may be mentioned iron, leather, barley, tobacco, and furs, which we now manufacture into nails and steel, shoes, boots, and saddlery, porter and beer, snuff and hats, in quantities more than sufficient for our own consumption: a considerable quantity of these and other articles, formerly imported are now manufactured by our own citizens, and form a respectable part of our exports: among these may be enumerated, as the most important, beef, pork, butter, cheese, mustard, loaf sugar, chocolate, household furniture, carriages, soap, candles, hair-powder, starch, paper, and pasteboard. Upon an examination of the exports, many valuable articles will be found not enumerated: this arises from the same cause, which prevents ascertaining the amount of dry goods: namely, the impossibility of knowing either the value or contents of packages, which pay no duty or inspection; consequently are only entered in a general way, without any attention to their contents. Of goods under the last description, the exportation is very great; being articles particularly demanded by the southern states, several of which receive their principal supplies of these articles from this city; among them, the chief are, shoes, boots, hats, gloves, printed books, and other stationary, saddlery, copper, tin and brass wares, and ship chandlery.

Number of vessels entered at the Custom-house, Philadelphia, in the years 1786 *and* 1787.

	1786.	1787.
Ships,	91	81
Brigs,	196	228
Sloops,	450	380
Schooners,	163	173
Snows,	10	6
Cutters,	-	2
Total	910	870

From the foregoing list of articles exported from the state, it is easy to see that her manufactures and agriculture have been already advanced to a degree of improvement superior to any of her sister states. The people called Quakers, and the Germans, have contributed their full proportions towards this improvement.

'Since the introduction of the carding and spinning machines,' says a Philadelphian writer, 'it is found that *jeans* can be made so as to undersell those imported from England, with the unavoidable charges of importation. Every public-spirited man may be supplied with this article at THE FACTORY, where the sale is very rapid, and purchases have been made by every description of the citizens of Pennsylvania, by the citizens of the adjacent states, and by some foreigners of distinction.

Another article calls for the attention of the friends of American manufactures, and of every frugal man—thread, cotton, and worsted hosiery. Several gentlemen have made a careful and impartial examination of the stockings manufactured in this city, in German-town, in the town

town and county of Lancaſter, Bethlehem, and Reading, and they find that the thread ſtockings made in Pennſylvania, and ſold generally at a dollar per pair, are of the ſame fineneſs with imported ſtockings which are ſold at 8s. 4d. and 8s. 6d. They alſo find that mixed ſtockings of thread and cotton, made in Pennſylvania, are ſold lower in proportion compared with thoſe of Great-Britain. Beſides this difference in price, it is a well known fact that three pair of Pennſylvania made ſtockings will wear longer than four pair of thoſe imported. There are now, (1788) about 250 ſtocking looms in the different parts of the city and ſtate, each of which makes on a medium, one pair and a half of ſtockings every day. Theſe, deducting Sundays, will amount 117,375 pair per annum, which, at 7s. 6d. a pair, is £44015 12 6. The increaſe of wool and flax, the reduction of labor, proviſions and rents, the cultivation of cotton in the ſouthern ſtates, and above all, the uſe of machines to card, ſpin, and twiſt cotton thread, will greatly promote this article, of which, at two pair to each perſon annually, the United States require a yearly ſupply of near ſix millions of pairs—a capital domeſtic demand, certain, and ſteadily increaſing with our population. The charges of importing hoſiery, under the general impoſt of five per cent. will be twenty-three per cent. excluſive of any profit to the importer or retailer. Should the adoption of the conſtitution tempt any, either Americans or foreigners, to puſh manufactures here, this branch promiſes great profit, and will no doubt be among the firſt that will engage their attention.

As many as two-thirds of the Pennſylvanians ſubſiſt by agriculture. The articles they raiſe have been enumerated in the liſt of exports.

A gentleman in the vicinity of Philadelphia, in the year 1788, planted one acre of carrots, which yielded him thirty tons—alſo an acre of pumpkins, which produced the ſame quantity. He ſows his carrots with a drill plough, and plants his pumpkins between the 1ſt and 10th of June. with theſe carrots and pumpkins only, he yearly fats a number of the beſt beeves that are driven to Philadelphia market.

The produce of the country eaſt of the Suſquehannah river is carried to Philadelphia in waggons drawn by horſes, except what is brought down the rivers in boats. The produce of the counties of York, Cumberland and Franklin, which is principally wheat, is generally carried to Baltimore in waggons. It is probable that Pennſylvania will continue to loſe the trade of theſe three productive countries, till good roads are made to the Suſquehannah, and two free ferries eſtabliſhed, one to Yorktown, and the other to Carliſle. Theſe inducements would probably turn the channel of the trade of theſe counties from Baltimore to Philadelphia. The produce of the counties weſt of the Allegany mountains is principally purchaſed as a ſupply for the troops ſtationed in thoſe parts, and for the numerous emigrants into the weſtern country. Large herds of cattle are raiſed here with very little expence.

Curious ſprings.] In the neighbourhood of Reading, is a ſpring about fourteen feet deep, and about 100 feet ſquare. A full mill ſtream iſſues from it. The waters are clear and full of fiſhes. From appearances it is probable that this ſpring is the opening or outlet of a very conſiderable river, which, a mile and an half or two miles above this place, ſinks into the earth, and is conveyed to this outlet in a ſubterranean channel.

In the northern parts of Pennſylvania there is a creek called Oil creek, which empties into the Allegany river. It iſſues from a ſpring, on the top of which floats an oil, ſimiliar to that called Barbadoes tar; and from which one man may gather ſeveral gallons in a day. The troops ſent to guard the weſtern poſts, halted at this ſpring, collected ſome of the oil, and bathed their joints with it. This gave them great relief from the rheumatic complaints with which they were affected. The waters, of which the troops drank freely, operated as a gentle purge.

Remarkable caves.] There are three remarkable grottos or caves in this ſtate; one near Carliſle, in Cumberland county; one in the townſhip of Durham, in Bucks county; and the other at Swetara, in Lancaſter county. Of the two former I have received no particular deſcriptions. The latter is on the eaſt bank of Swetara river, about two miles above its confluence with the Suſquehannah. Its entrance is ſpacious, and deſcends ſo much as that the ſurface of the river is rather higher than the bottom of the cave. The vault of this cave is of ſolid lime ſtone rock, perhaps 20 feet thick. It contains ſeveral apartments, ſome of them very high and ſpacious. The water is inceſſantly percolating through the roof, and falls in drops to the bottom of the cave. Theſe drops petrify as they fall, and have gradually formed ſolid pillars which appear as ſupports to the roof. Thirty years ago there were ten ſuch pillars, each ſix inches in diameter, and ſix feet high; all ſo ranged that the place they encloſed reſembled a ſanctuary in a Roman church. No royal throne ever exhibited more grandeur than this *luſus naturæ*. The reſemblance of ſeveral monuments are found indented in the walls on the ſides of the cave, which appear like the tombs of departed heroes. Suſpended from the roof is 'the bell,' (which is nothing more than a ſtone projected in an unuſual form) ſo called from the ſound that it occaſions when ſtruck, which is ſimilar to that of a bell.

Some of the ſtalactites are of a colour like ſugar-candy, and others reſemble loaf ſugar; but their beauty is much defaced by the country people. The water, which percolates through the roof, ſo much of it as is not petrified in its courſe, runs down the declivity, and is both pleaſant and wholeſome to drink. There are ſeveral holes in the bottom of the cave, deſcending perpendicularly, perhaps into an abyſs below, which render it dangerous to walk without a light. At the end of the cave is a pretty brook, which, after a ſhort courſe, loſes itſelf among the rocks. Beyond this brook is an outlet from the cave by a very narrow aperture. Through this the vapours continually paſs outwards with a ſtrong current of air, and aſcend, reſembling, at night, the ſmoak of a furnace. Part of theſe vapours and fogs appear, on aſcending, to be condenſed at the head of this great alembic, and the more volatile parts to be carried off, through the aperture communicating with the exterior air before mentioned, by the force of the air in its paſſage*.

Antiquities.] On a high hill, near the Tyoga river, a little to the ſouthward of the line which divides New-York from Pennſylvania, are to be ſeen the remains of an ancient fortification. The form of it is circular, and it is encompaſſed with an entrenchment. From appearances it

* *Amer. Phil. Tranſ. Vol. II. P.* 177.

is

is conjectured that pits were ſunk in a number of places, and lightly covered over, ſo as to decoy the aſſailants in caſe of an attack, and defeat their attempts in ſtorming the works. The entrenchment only remains; but it appears to have been formerly ſtockaded. The Indians are entirely ignorant of the origin of theſe works, but ſuppoſe they were erected by the Spaniſh Indians. The hill is an excellent ſtation for a fort, and commands a delightful view of the country around it, which is low and fertile. There is a fortification, of a ſimilar kind, at Unadilla, in the flat lands.

Conſtitution.] By the preſent conſtitution of Pennſylvania, which was eſtabliſhed in September, 1776, all legiſlative powers are lodged in a ſingle body of men, which is ſtiled 'The general aſſembly of repreſentatives of the freemen of Pennſylvania.' The qualifications required to render a perſon eligible to this aſſembly is, two years reſidence in the city or country for which he is choſen; no member of the houſe can hold any other office, except in the militia.

The qualifications of the electors, are, full age, and one year's reſidence in the ſtate, with payment of public taxes during that time. But the ſons of freeholders are intitled to vote for repreſentatives, without any qualification, except full age.

No man can be elected as a member of the aſſembly more than *four* years in *ſeven*.

The repreſentatives are choſen annually on the ſecond Tueſday in October, and they meet on the fourth Monday of the ſame month. A quorum of the houſe conſiſts of two thirds of the whole number of members elected; and the members, before they take their ſeats, are obliged to take an oath or affirmation of fidelity to the ſtate; aud alſo ſubſcribe a declaration or teſt, acknowledging their belief in one God, and the inſpiration of the ſcriptures of the Old and New Teſtament. The houſe chuſe their own ſpeaker, who, in the tranſaction of buſineſs, never leaves the chair. A journal of the proceedings of the aſſembly is publiſhed regularly, and any member may inſert the reaſons of his vote upon the minutes of the houſe. To prevent haſty determinations on matters of importance, all bills of a public nature are printed before the laſt reading, and, except in caſes of neceſſity, are not paſſed into laws before the next ſeſſion. The power of impeachment is veſted in the general aſſembly.

The ſupreme executive power is lodged in a preſident, and a council conſiſting of a member from each county. The preſident is elected annually by the joint ballot of the aſſembly and council, and from the members of council. A vice preſident is choſen at the ſame time.

The counſellors are choſen by the freemen, every third year, and having ſerved three years, they are ineligible for the four ſucceeding years. The appointments of one third only of the members expire every year, by which rotation no more than one third can be new members. A counſellor is, by his office, a juſtice of the peace for the whole ſtate. The preſident and council form a court for the trial of impeachments.

The council meet at the ſame time and place with the general aſſembly.

The preſident and council appoint and commiſſion judges of courts, naval officers, judge of the admiralty, attorney general, and other officers, the appointment of whom is not expreſsly veſted in the people or general aſſembly. But the freemen chuſe the juſtices of peace, the colonels of militia, and the inferior military officers, and make a return of the perſons elected, to the preſident and council, who are empowered to commiſſion them. The juſtices of peace hold their commiſſions for ſeven years, removeable however for miſconduct by the general aſſembly. A juſtice, while in office, cannot be a repreſentative in aſſembly, nor take any fees but ſuch as ſhall be allowed by the legiſlature.

The judges of the ſupreme court hold their office for ſeven years, and at the end of that term, may be re-appointed. They have a fixed ſalary, and are not permitted to take any fees or perquiſites, or to hold any other office, civil or military.

Courts of common pleas, ſeſſions and orphans courts, are held quarterly in each city and county.

The ſupreme court, and courts of common pleas, have the powers of chancery courts, ſo far as is neceſſary for the perpetuating of teſtimony, obtaining evidence from places out of the ſtate, and the care of the perſons and eſtates of thoſe who are *non compotes mentis*.

Sheriffs and coroners are choſen annually by the freemen; but they can ſerve but three ſucceſſive years, at the end of which they are incligible during four years.

A regiſter's office for the probate of wills, and granting letters of adminiſtration, and an office for the recording of deeds, are kept in each city and county: The officers are appointed by the general aſſembly, removable at their pleaſure, and commiſſioned by the preſident and council.

The conſtitution of this ſtate ordains, that the legiſlature ſhall regulate entails in ſuch a manner as to prevent perpetuities.

Any foreigner of a good character may purchaſe and hold lands and other property, having firſt taken the oath of allegiance; and a year's reſidence entitles him to the privileges of a natural born ſubject; except that of being eligible to a ſeat in the legiſlature.

A *Council of Cenſors*, compoſed of two members from each county, choſen by the freemen, on the ſecond Tueſday of October every ſeventh year, is inſtituted for the purpoſe of enquiring whether the conſtitution has been preſerved inviolate—whether the different branches of government have performed their duty as guardians of the people—whether the public taxes have been juſtly laid and collected, and in what manner the monies have been diſpoſed of—and alſo whether the laws have been duly executed. For theſe purpoſes, they have power to ſend for perſons, papers and records—to paſs public cenſures, order impeachments, and to recommend to the legiſlature the repeal of laws which they deem unconſtitutional. They have power alſo to order a convention for the purpoſe of amending the conſtitution; publiſhing the articles propoſed to be amended ſix months before the election of the delegates. Theſe powers continue in the council of cenſors for one year.

The people of Pennſylvania have different political ſentiments, according to their progreſs in induſtry and civilized life. The firſt claſs of ſettlers

ſettlers in this ſtate, who have been deſcribed as making the firſt advances in the unſettled country, are attached to the preſent ſimple and viſionary frame of government. The ſecond ſettlers are divided in their opinions reſpecting it. But ninety-nine out of an hundred of the third ſettlers, or real farmers, are oppoſed to it, and wiſh for a ſafe, ſtable, and compound form of government. As the firſt ſpecies of ſettlers are more idle and bold than the laſt, who, though the moſt numerous, are quiet,—they have forced them to ſubmit to it.

Among other uſeful laws of this ſtate, of a public nature, are, one that declares all rivers and creeks to be highways—a law for the emancipation of negroes, already mentioned—a bankrupt law, nearly on the model of the bankrupt laws of England—a law commuting hard labour for a long term of years, for death, as a puniſhment for many crimes which are made capital by the laws of England. Murder, arſon, and one or two other crimes, are yet puniſhed with death—A bill was before the legiſlature laſt year, (1787) the purport of which was to enable foreigners, (remaining in their native allegiance) to hold lands in Pennſylvania, which is not the caſe in Great-Britain, nor in any other of the United States.

New Inventions.] Theſe have been numerous and uſeful. Among others are the following: A new model of the planetary world, by Mr. Rittenhouſe, commonly, but improperly, called an Orrery—a quadrant, by Mr. Godfrey, called by the plagiary name of Hadley's quadrant—a ſteam-boat, ſo conſtructed, as that by the aſſiſtance of ſteam, operating on certain machinery within the boat, it moves with conſiderable rapidity againſt the ſtream, without the aid of hands. Meſſrs. Fitch and Rumſay contend with each other for the honour of this invention—a new printing preſs, lately invented and conſtructed in Philadelphia, worked by one perſon alone, who performs three-fourths as much work in a day, as two perſons at a common preſs. Beſides theſe there have been invented many manufacturing machines, for carding, ſpinning, winnowing, &c. which perform an immenſe deal of work with very little manual aſſiſtance.

Hiſtory.] Pennſylvania was granted by king Charles II. to Mr. William Penn, ſon of the famous admiral Penn, in conſideration of his father's ſervices to the crown*. Mr. Penn's petition for the grant was preſented to the king in 1680; and after conſiderable delays, occaſioned by Lord Baltimore's agent, who apprehended it might interfere with the Maryland patent, the charter of Pennſylvania received the royal ſignature on the 4th of March, 1681. To ſecure his title againſt all claims, and prevent future altercation, Mr. Penn procured a quit-claim deed from the duke of York, of all the lands, covered by his own patent, to which the duke could have the leaſt pretenſions. This deed bears date, Auguſt 21, 1682. On the 24th of the ſame month, he obtained from the duke, by deed of feoffment, Newcaſtle, with twelve miles of the adjacent territory,

* *A large debt was due from the crown to Mr. Penn, a part of which he offered to remit, on condition he obtained his grant. This, whatever benevolent motives are held out to the world, muſt have been a principal conſideration with the king in making the grant.*

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and the lands ſouth to the Hoarkills. In December following, Mr. Penn effected an union of the lower counties with the province of Pennſylvania*.

The firſt frame of government for Pennſylvania is dated in 1682. By this form, all legiſlative powers were veſted in the governor and freemen of the province, in the form of a provincial council, and a general aſſembly. The council was to conſiſt of ſeventy-two members, choſen by the freemen; of which the governor, or his deputy, was to be perpetual preſident, with a treble vote. One-third of this council went out of office every year, and their ſeats were ſupplied by new elections.

The general aſſembly was at firſt to conſiſt of all the freemen—afterwards of two hundred, and never to exceed five hundred.

In 1683, Mr. Penn offered another frame of government, in which the number of repreſentatives was reduced, and the governor veſted with a *negative* upon all bills paſſed in aſſembly. By ſeveral ſpecious arguments, the people were perſuaded to accept this frame of government.

Not long after, a diſpute between Mr. Penn and Lord Baltimore required the former to go to England, and he committed the adminiſtration of government to five commiſſioners, taken from the council. In 1686, Mr. Penn required the commiſſioners to diſſolve the frame of government; but not being able to effect his purpoſe, he, in 1688, appointed Capt. John Blackwell his deputy. From this period, the proprietors uſually reſided in England, and adminiſtered the government by deputies, who were devoted to their intereſt. Jealouſies aroſe between the people and their governors, which never ceaſed till the late revolution. The primary cauſe of theſe jealouſies, was an attempt of the proprietary to extend his own power, and abridge that of the aſſembly; and the conſequence was inceſſant diſputes and diſſenſions in the legiſlature.

In 1689, governor Blackwell, finding himſelf oppoſed in his views, had recourſe to artifice, and prevailed on certain members of the council to withdraw themſelves from the houſe; thus defeating the meaſures of the legiſlature†. The houſe voted this to be treachery, and addreſſed the governor on the occaſion.

In 1693, the king and queen aſſumed the government into their own hands. Col. Fletcher was appointed governor of New-York and Pennſylvania by one and the ſame commiſſion, with equal powers in both provinces. By this commiſſion, the number of counſellors in Pennſylvania was reduced.

Under the adminiſtration of governor Markham in 1696, a new form of government was eſtabliſhed in Pennſylvania. The election of the council and aſſembly now became annual, and the legiſlature, with their powers and forms of proceeding, was new modelled.

In 1699, the proprietary arrived from England, and aſſumed the reins of government. While he remained in Pennſylvania, the laſt *charter of privileges*, or frame of government, which continued to the revolution.

* *See Franklin's hiſtorical review of the conſtitution and government of Pennſylvania, page* 14.

† *Two inſtances of a ſucceſſion of members from the aſſembly, with ſimilar views, have taken place ſince the revolution, and ſeem to have been copied from the example in* 1689.

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was agreed upon and eſtabliſhed. This was completed and delivered to the people by the proprietary, October 28, 1701, juſt on his embarking for England. The inhabitants of the *territory*, as it was then called, or the lower counties, refuſed to accept this charter, and thus ſeparated themſelves from the province of Pennſylvania. They afterwards had their own aſſembly, in which the governor of Pennſylvania uſed to preſide.

In September, 1700, the Suſquehannah Indians granted to Mr. Penn all their lands on both ſides the river. The Suſquehannah, Shawaneſe, and Potomak Indians, however, entered into articles of agreement with Mr. Penn, by which, on certain conditions of peaceable and friendly behaviour, they were permitted to ſettle about the head of Patomak, in the province of Pennſylvania. The Conoſtoga chiefs alſo, in 1701, ratified the grant of the Suſquehannah Indians, made the preceding year.

In 1708, Mr. Penn obtained from the Sachems of the country, a confirmation of the grants made by former Indians, of all the lands from Duck creek, to the mountains, and from the Delaware to the Suſquehannah. In this deed the Sachems declared, that *they had ſeen and heard read divers prior deeds which had been given to Mr. Penn, by former chiefs.*

While Mr. Penn was in America, he erected Philadelphia into a corporation. The charter was dated October 25, 1701, by which the police of the city was veſted in a mayor, recorder, aldermen, and common-council, with power to enquire into treaſons, murders, and other felonies; and to enquire into and puniſh ſmaller crimes. The corporation had alſo extenſive civil juriſdiction; but it was diſſolved at the late revolution, and Philadelphia is governed like other counties in the ſtate.

By the favourable terms which Mr. Penn offered to ſettlers, and an unlimited toleration of all religious denominations, the population of the province was extremely rapid. Notwithſtanding the attempts of the proprietary, or his governors, to extend his own power, and accumulate property by procuring grants from the people, and exempting his lands from taxation, the government was generally mild, and the burdens of the people by no means oppreſſive. The ſelfiſh deſigns of the proprietaries were vigorouſly and conſtantly oppoſed by the aſſembly, whoſe firmneſs preſerved the charter rights of the province.

At the revolution, the government was aboliſhed. The proprietaries were abſent, and the people by their repreſentatives formed a new conſtitution on republican principles. The proprietaries were excluded from all ſhare in the government, and the legiſlature offered them one hundred and thirty thouſand pounds in lieu of all quit rents, which was finally accepted. The proprietaries, however, ſtill poſſeſs in Pennſylvania many large tracts of excellent land.

It is to be regretted, that among all the able writers in this important ſtate, none has yet gratified the public with its intereſting hiſtory. As therefore hiſtory is not profeſſedly the province of a geographer, a more particular detail of hiſtorical facts, than has already been given, will not be expected. We ſhall therefore conclude the hiſtory of Pennſylvania with the following liſt of governors.

A Liſt

A Liſt of the ſeveral PROPRIETORS, GOVERNORS, LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS, and Preſidents of the *Province*, with the times of their reſpective Adminiſtrations.

PROPRIETORS.

The Honourable	William Penn,	born 1644, died 1718.
	John Penn,	died 1746.
	Thomas Penn,	
	Richard Penn,	died 1771.
	John Penn,	

GOVERNORS, &c.

Governor,	William Penn, *Proprietor,*	from Oct. 1682, to Aug. 1684.
Preſident,	Thomas Lloyd	Aug. 1684, to Dec. 1688.
Lt.-Governor,	John Blackwell,,	Dec. 1688, to Feb. 1689-90.
Preſident and Council	governed,	Feb. 1689-90, to April 26, 1693.
Governor,	Benjamin Fletcher,	26 April, 1693, to 3 June, 1693.
Lt.-Governor,	William Markham,	3 June, 1693, to Dec. 1699.
Governor,	William Penn, *Proprietor,*	3 Dec. 1699, to 1 Nov. 1701.
Lt.-Governor,	Andrew Hamilton,	1 Nov. 1701, to Feb. 1702-3.
Preſident and Council	governed,	Feb. 1702-3, to Feb. 1703-4.
Lt.-Governors,	John Evans,	Feb. 1703-4, to Feb. 1708-9.
	Charles Gookin,	March, 1708-9, to 1717.
	Sir William Keith, *Bart.*	1717 to June, 1726.
	Patrick Gordon,	June, 1726 to 1736.
	George Thomas,	1738 to 1747.
Preſident,	Anthony Palmer,	1747 to 1748.
Lt.-Governors,	James Hamilton	1748 to Oct. 1754.
	Robert Hunter Morris,	Oct. 1754, to 19 Aug. 1756.
	William Denny,	19 Aug. 1756, to 17 Nov. 1759.
	James Hamilton,	17 Nov. 1759, to 31 Oct. 1763.
	John Penn,	31 Oct. 1763, to 6 May, 1771.
Preſident,	James Hamilton,	6 May, 1771, to 16 Oct. 1771.
Lt.-Governor,	Richard Penn,	16 Oct. 1771.
Governors,	Thomas Wharton,	March, 1777, to April, 1778.
	Joſeph Reed,	Oct. 1778, to Oct. 1781.
	William Moore,	Nov. 1781, to Nov. 1782.
	John Dickinſon,	Nov. 1782, to Oct. 1785.
	BENJAMIN FRANKLIN,	Oct. 1785, to Oct. 1788.
	Thomas Mifflin,	Oct. 1788.

DELAWARE,

Situation and Extent.

Miles.
Length 92 } Between { 38° 30′ and 40° North Latitude.
Breadth 16 } { 0° and 1° 45′ West Longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by the territorial line*, which divides it from Pennsylvania; east, by Delaware river and Bay; south, by a due east and west line, from Cape Henlopen, in lat. 38° 30′ to the middle of the peninsula, which line divides the state from Worcester county in Maryland; west, by Maryland, from which it is divided by a line drawn from the western termination of the southern boundary line, northwards up the said peninsula, till it touch or form a tangent to the western part of the periphery of the above-mentioned territorial circle: containing about 1400 square miles.

Climate.] In many parts unhealthy. The land is generally low and flat, which occasions the waters to stagnate, and the consequence is, the inhabitants are subject to intermittents.

Civil Divisions.] The Delaware state is divided into three counties, viz.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Newcastle,	Wilmington and Newcastle.
Kent,	Dover.
Sussex,	Milford and Lewistown.

Rivers.] Choptank, Nanticok and Pocomoke, all have their sources in this state, and are navigable for vessels of 50 or 60 tons, 20 or 30 miles into the country. They all run a westwardly course into Chesapeek Bay. The eastern side of the state, along Delaware bay and river, is indented with a great number of small creeks, but none considerable enough to merit a description.

Soil and Productions.] The south part of the state is a low flat country, and a considerable portion of it lies in forest. What is under cultivation is chiefly barren, except in Indian corn, of which it produces fine crops. In some places rye and flax may be raised, but wheat is a foreigner in these parts. Where nature is deficient in one resource, she is generally bountiful in another. This is verified in the tall, thick forests of pines, which are manufactured into boards, and exported in large quantities into every sea-port in the three adjoining states.—As you proceed north the soil is more fertile, and produces wheat in large quantities, which is the staple commodity of the state. They raise all the other kinds of grain common to Pennsylvania. The state has no mountain in it, ex-

* *The* Territorial Line, *so called, is a circle described with a radius of* 12 *English miles, and whose centre is in the middle of the town of Newcastle.*

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cept Thunder Hill, in the weſtern part of Newcaſtle county, and is generally level, except ſome ſmall parts, which are ſtony and uneven.

Chief Towns.] DOVER, in the county of Kent, is the ſeat of government. It ſtands on Jones' creek, a few miles from the Delaware river, and conſiſts of about 100 houſes, principally of brick. Four ſtreets interſect each other at right angles, in the centre of the town, whoſe incidencies form a ſpacious parade, on the eaſt ſide of which is an elegant ſtate-houſe of brick. The town has a lively appearance, and drives on a conſiderable trade with Philadelphia. Wheat is the principal article of export. The landing is five or ſix miles from the town of Dover.

NEWCASTLE is 35 miles below Philadelphia, on the weſt bank of Delaware river. It was firſt ſettled by the Swedes, about the year 1627, and called Stockholm. It was afterwards taken by the Dutch, and called New Amſterdam. When it fell into the hands of the Engliſh, it was called by its preſent name. It contains about 60 houſes, which have the aſpect of decay, and was formerly the ſeat of government.—This is the firſt town that was ſettled on Delaware river.

WILMINGTON is ſituated a mile and a half weſt of Delaware river, on Chriſtiana creek, 28 miles ſouthward from Philadelphia. It is much the largeſt and pleaſanteſt town in the ſtate, containing about 400 houſes, which are handſomely built upon a gentle aſcent of an eminence, and ſhow to great advantage as you ſail up the Delaware.

Beſides other public buildings, there is a flouriſhing academy of about 40 or 50 ſcholars, who are taught the languages, and ſome of the ſciences, by an able inſtructor. This academy, in proper time, is intended to be erected into a college. There is another academy at Newark, in this county, which was incorporated in 1769, and then had 14 truſtees.

MILFORD, the little emporium of Suſſex county, is ſituated at the ſource of a ſmall river, 15 miles from Delaware bay, and 150 ſouthward of Philadelphia. This town, which contains about 80 houſes, has been built, except one houſe, ſince the revolution. It is laid out with much taſte, and is by no means diſagreeable. The inhabitants are Epiſcopalians, Quakers and Methodiſts.

DUCK CREEK, is 12 miles north-weſt from Dover, and has about 60 houſes, which ſtand on one ſtreet. It carries on a conſiderable trade with Philadelphia—and certainly merits a more pompous name. A mile ſouth from this is ſituated Governor Collin's plantation. His houſe, which is large and elegant, ſtands a quarter of a mile from the road, and has a pleaſing effect upon the eye of the traveller.

Trade.] The trade of this ſtate, which is inconſiderable, is carried on principally with Philadelphia, in boats and ſhallops. The articles exported are principally wheat, corn, lumber and hay.

Religion.] There are, in this ſtate 21 Preſbyterian congregations, belonging to the Synod of Philadelphia—Seven Epiſcopal churches—Six congregations of Baptiſts, containing about 218 ſouls—Four congregations of the people called Quakers; beſides a Swediſh church at Wilmington, which is one of the oldeſt churches in the United States, and a number of Methodiſts. *All* theſe denominations have free toleration by the conſtitution, and live together in harmony.

Population and Character.] In the convention held at Philadelphia, in the ſummer of 1787, the inhabitants of this ſtate were reckoned at 37,000, which is about 26 for every ſquare mile. There is no obvious characteriſtical difference between the inhabitants of this ſtate and the Pennſylvanians.

Conſtitution.] At the revolution, the three lower counties on Delaware became independent by the name of *The Delaware State*. Under their preſent conſtitution, which was eſtabliſhed in September, 1776, the legiſlature is divided into two diſtinct branches, which together are ſtiled *The General Aſſembly of Delaware*. One branch, called the *Houſe of Aſſembly*, conſiſts of ſeven repreſentatives from each of the three counties, choſen annually by the freeholders. The other branch, called the *Council*, conſiſts of nine members, three for a county, who muſt be more than twenty-five years of age, choſen likewiſe by the freeholders. A rotation of members is eſtabliſhed by diſplacing one member for a county at the end of every year.

All money bills muſt originate in the houſe of aſſembly, but they may be altered, amended or rejected by the legiſlative council*.

A preſident or chief magiſtrate is choſen by the joint ballot of both houſes, and continues in office three years; at the expiration of which period, he is ineligible the three ſucceeding years. If his office becomes vacant during the receſs of the legiſlature, or he is unable to attend to buſineſs, the ſpeaker of the legiſlative council is vice preſident for the time; and in *his* abſence, the powers of the vice preſident devolve on the ſpeaker of the aſſembly.

A privy council, conſiſting of four members, two from each houſe, choſen by ballot, is conſtituted to aſſiſt the chief magiſtrate in the adminiſtration of the government.

The three juſtices of the ſupreme court, a judge of admiralty, and four juſtices of the common pleas and orphans courts, are appointed by the joint ballot of the preſident and general aſſembly, and commiſſioned by the preſident—to hold their offices during good behaviour. The preſident and privy council appoint the ſecretary, the attorney-general, regiſters for the probate of wills, regiſters in chancery, clerks of the com-

* *The firſt part of this clauſe is found in ſeveral of the American conſtitutions, and ſeems to have been ſervilely copied from the practice of originating money bills in the Britiſh houſe of commons. In Great-Britain this is deemed a privilege, and yet it is difficult to diſcover the privilege, while the houſe of commons have a negative upon all bills whatever. But in America, where the property of both houſes is taxed alike, and the men who compoſe them are, at different ſeſſions, changed from one houſe to the other, there ſeems to be not a ſhow of reaſon for giving one branch the excluſive privilege of originating money bills. To prove with how little reaſon this article of the conſtitution is introduced in America, it might be uſeful to read a ſhort hiſtory of the cuſtoms in the parliament of Great-Britain—a cuſtom introduced merely for the convenience of doing buſineſs. For this uſeful piece of hiſtory, the reader is referred to the American Magazine, publiſhed in New-York, 1788, by Noah Webſter, Eſquire, No. VII. page 456.*

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mon pleas, and orphans courts, and clerks of the peace, who hold thei offices during five years, unleſs ſooner removed for mal-conduct.

The houſe of aſſembly name twenty-four perſons in each county fo juſtices of peace, from which number the preſident, with the advice of hi council, appoints and commiſſions twelve, who ſerve for ſeven years, unleſ ſooner diſmiſſed for mal-adminiſtration. The members of the legiſlativ and privy councils are juſtices of the peace for the whole ſtate.

The courts of common pleas and orphans courts have power to hol chancery courts in certain caſes.

The clerk of the ſupreme court is appointed by the chief juſtice, anc the recorders of deeds, by the juſtices of the common pleas, for five years, unleſs ſooner diſmiſſed.

All the military and marine officers are appointed by the general aſ- ſembly,

The *Court of Appeals* conſiſts of ſeven perſons—the preſident, who is a member, and preſides by virtue of his office, and ſix others, three to be choſen by the legiſlative council, and three by the houſe of aſſembly. To this court appeals lie from the ſupreme court, in all matters of law and equity. The judges hold their office during good behaviour.

The juſtices of the ſeveral courts, the members of the privy council, ſecretary, truſtees of the loan office, clerks of the common pleas, and all perſons concerned in army or navy contracts, are ineligible to either houſe of aſſembly. Every member, before taking his ſeat, muſt take the oath of allegiance, and ſubſcribe a religious teſt, declaring his belief in God the Father, in Jeſus Chriſt, and the Holy Ghoſt; and in the inſpi- ration of the Scriptures.

The houſe of aſſembly have the privileges of impeaching delinquent of- ficers of government, and impeachments are to be proſecuted by the at- torney-general, or other perſon appointed by the aſſembly, and tried be- fore the legiſlative council. The puniſhment may extend to temporary or perpetual diſability to hold offices under government, or to ſuch other penalties as the laws ſhall direct.

There is, in Delaware, no eſtabliſhment of one religious ſect in prefe- rence to another, nor can any preacher or clergyman, while in his paſto- ral employment, hold any civil office in the ſtate.

Hiſtory.] The Dutch, under the pretended purchaſe made of Henry Hudſon*, took poſſeſſion of the lands on both ſides the river Delaware; and as early as the year 1623, built a fort at the place, which has ſince been called Glouceſter.

In 1627, by the influence of William Uſeling, a reſpectable mer- chant in Sweden, a colony of Swedes and Finns came over, furniſhed with all the neceſſaries of beginning a new ſettlement, and landed at Cape Henlopen; at which time the Dutch had wholly quitted the coun- try. The Dutch, however, returned in 1630, and built a fort at Lewiſ- town, by them named Hoarkill. The year following the Swedes built a fort near Wilmington, which they called Chriſtein or Chriſtiana. Here alſo they laid out a ſmall town, which was afterwards demoliſhed by the Dutch. The ſame year they erected a fort higher up the river, upon Tenecum iſland, which they called New Gottenburg; they alſo,

* *See hiſtory of New-York.*

about

about the same time built forts at Chester, Elsinburg, and other places. John Printz then governed the Swedes, who, in 1654, deputed his son-in-law, John Papgoia, and returned to Sweden. Papgoia soon followed his father-in-law to his native country, and John Rysing succeeded to the government.

In 1655, the Dutch, under the command of Peter Stuyvesant, arrived in Delaware river, from New-Amsterdam (now New-York) in seven vessels, with 6 or 700 men. They dispossessed the Swedes of their forts on the river, and carried the officers and principal inhabitants prisoners to New-Amsterdam, and from thence to Holland. The common people submitted to the conquerors and remained in the country.

On the first of October, 1664, Sir Robert Carr obtained the submission of the Swedes on Delaware river. Four years after, Col. Nicolls, governor of New-York, with his council, on the 21st of April, appointed a *scout* and five other persons, to assist Capt. Carr in the government of the country.

In 1672, the town of Newcastle was incorporated by the government of New-York, to be governed by a bailiff and six assistants; after the first year, the four oldest were to leave their office and four others to be chosen. The bailiff was president, with a double vote; the constable was chosen by the bench. They had power to try causes not exceeding ten pounds, without appeal. The office of *scout* was converted into that of sheriff, who had jurisdiction in the corporation and along the river, and was annually chosen. They were to have a free trade, without being obliged to make entry at New-York, as had formerly been the practice.

Wampum was, at this time, the principal currency of the country. Governor Lovelace, of New-York, by proclamation, ordered that four white grains and three black ones, should pass for the value of a stiver or penny. This proclamation was published at Albany, Esopus, Delaware, Long-Island, and the parts adjacent.

In 1674, Charles II. by a second patent, dated June 29th, granted to his brother, duke of York, all that country called by the Dutch *New Netherlands*, of which the three counties of Newcastle, Kent, and Sussex were a part.

In 1683, the duke of York, by deed, dated August 24th, sold to William Penn the town of Newcastle, with the district of 12 miles round the same; and by another deed, of the same date, granted to him the remainder of the territory, which, till the revolution, was called the *Three Lower Counties*, and has since been called the Delaware State. Till 1776, these three counties were considered as a part of Pennsylvania, in matters of government. The same governor presided over both, but the assembly and courts of judicature were different: different as to their constituent members, but in form nearly the same.

MARY-

MARYLAND.

SITUATION and EXTENT.

Miles.
Length 134 } Between { 37° 56′ and 39° 44′ North Latitude
Breadth 110 } { 0° and 4° 30′ West Longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north by Pennsylvania; east, by the Delaware State; south-east and south, by the Atlantic Ocean, and a line drawn from the ocean over the peninsula (dividing it from Accomac county in Virginia) to the mouth of Potomak river; thence up the Patomak to its first fountain; thence, by a due-north line, till it intersects the southern boundary of Pennsylvania, in lat. 39° 43′ 18″, so that it has Virginia on the south, south-west, and west. It contains about 14,000 square miles, of which about one-sixth is water.

Civil Divisions.] Maryland is divided into 18 counties, 10 of which are on the western, and 8 on the eastern shore of Chesapeek-Bay. These, with their population in 1782, are as follows:

Counties.	Free males above 18 years of age.	Number of white inhabitants.	Number of Negroes in the State of Maryland, taken by the several assessors, in March, 1782.	
St. Mary's,	1173	8,459	Negroes under 8 years of age,	27,626
† Somerset,	1598	7,787	do. Males and females, from 8 to 14 years of age,	13,399
Calvert,	894	4,012	do. Males from 14 to 45 years of age,	16,246
Montgomery,	2160	10,011	do. Females from 14 to 36 years of age,	13,832
Washington,	2579	11,488	do. Males above 45 years of age,	12,259
† Queen Ann's,	1742	7,767	do. Females above 36 years of age,	
† Caroline,	1293	6,230	Total	83,362
† Kent,	1394	6,156		
Charles,	2115	9,804		
† Talbot,	1478	6,744		
† Dorchester,	1828	8,927		
Baltimore,	3165	17,878		
Ann Arundel,	2229	9,370		
† Worcester,	733	8,561		
Harford,	2243	9,377		
† Cæcil,	2000	7,749		
Frederick,	3785	20,495		
PrinceGeorge's,	2259	9,864		
Total	35,268	170,688		

N. B. Those counties marked (†) are on the east, the rest are on the west side of the Chesapeek-Bay.

Each

Each of the counties ſends four Repreſentatives to the Houſe of Delegates, beſides which the city of Annapolis, and town of Baltimore, ſend each two, making in the whole 76 members.

Climate.] Generally mild and agreeable, ſuited to agricultural productions, and a great variety of fruit trees. In the interior hilly country the inhabitants are healthy; but in the flat country, in the neighbourhood of the marſhes and ſtagnant waters, they are, as in the other ſouthern ſtates, ſubject to intermittents.

Bays and Rivers.] Cheſapeek-Bay, as we have already hinted, divides this ſtate into the eaſtern and weſtern diviſions. This Bay, which is the largeſt in the United-States, was particularly deſcribed, page 47. It affords ſeveral good fiſheries; and, in a commercial view, is of immenſe advantage to the ſtate. It receives a number of the largeſt rivers in the United-States. From the eaſtern ſhore in Maryland, among other ſmaller ones, it receives Pokomoke, Choptank, Cheſter, and Elk rivers. From the north the rapid Suſquehannah; and from the weſt, Patapſco, Severn, Patuxent and Patomak, half of which is in Maryland, and half in Virginia. Except the Suſquehannah and Patomak, theſe are ſmall rivers. Patapſco river is but about 30 or 40 yards wide at the ferry, juſt before it empties into the baſon upon which Baltimore ſtands. Its ſource is in York county, in Pennſylvania. Its courſe ſouthwardly, till it reaches Elkridge landing, about 8 miles weſtward of Baltimore; it then turns eaſtward, in a broad bay-like ſtream, by Baltimore, which it leaves on the north, and paſſes into the Cheſapeek.

The entrance into Baltimore harbour, about a mile below Fell's-Point, is hardly piſtol-ſhot acroſs, and of courſe may be eaſily defended againſt naval force.

Severn is a ſhort, inconſiderable river, paſſing by Annapolis, which it leaves to the ſouth, emptying, by a broad mouth, into the Cheſapeek-Bay.

Patuxent is a larger river than the Patapſco. It riſes in Ann Arundel county, and runs ſouth-eaſtwardly, and then eaſt into the bay, 15 or 20 miles north of the mouth of Patomak. There are ſeveral ſmall rivers, ſuch as Wighcocomico, Eaſtern Branch, Monocaſy, and Conegocheague, which empty into Patomak river, from the Maryland ſide.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.] Eaſt of the blue ridge of mountains, which ſtretches acroſs the weſtern part of this ſtate, the land, like that in all the ſouthern ſtates, is generally level and free of ſtones; and appears to have been made much in the ſame way; of courſe the ſoil muſt be ſimilar, and the natural growth not noticeably different.

The ſoil of the good land in Maryland, is of ſuch a nature and quality as to produce from 12 to 16 buſhels of wheat, or from 20 to 30 buſhels of Indian corn per acre. Ten buſhels of wheat, and 15 buſhels of corn per acre, may be the annual average crops in the ſtate at large.

Wheat and tobacco are the ſtaple commodities of Maryland. Tobacco is generally cultivated by negroes, in ſetts, in the following manner: The ſeed is ſowed in beds of fine mould, and tranſplanted the beginning of May. The plants are ſet at the diſtance of 3 or 4 feet from each other, and are hilled and kept continually free of weeds. When as many leaves have ſhot out as the ſoil will nouriſh to advantage, the top of the plant

plant is broken off, which prevents its growing higher. It is carefully kept clear of worms, and the ſuckers, which put out between the leaves, are taken off at proper times, till the plant arrives at perfection, which is in Auguſt. When the leaves turn of a browniſh colour, and begin to be ſpotted, the plant is cut down and hanged up to dry, after having ſweated in heaps one night. When it can be handled without crumbling, which is always in moiſt weather, the leaves are ſtripped from the ſtalk, tied in bundles, and packed for exportation in hogſheads containing 8 or 900 pounds. No ſuckers nor ground leaves are allowed to be merchantable. An induſtrious perſon may manage 6000 plants of tobacco, (which yield 1000lb.) and four acres of land.

In the interior country, on the uplands, conſiderable quantities of hemp and flax is raiſed. As long ago as 1751, in the month of October, no leſs than 60 waggons, loaded with flax ſeed, came down to Baltimore from the back country.

Among other kinds of timber is the oak of ſeveral kinds, which is of a ſtrait grain, and eaſily rives into ſtaves, for exportation. The black walnut is in demand for cabinets, tables, and other furniture. The apples of this ſtate are large, but mealy; their peaches plenty and good. From theſe the inhabitants diſtil cyder brandy, and peach brandy.

The foreſts abound with nuts of various kinds, which are collectively called *Maſt*. On this Maſt vaſt numbers of ſwine are fed, which run wild in the woods. Their ſwine, when fatted, are caught, killed, barrelled and exported in great quantities. Douglas ſays, that 'in the year 1733, which was a good *maſting* year, one gentleman, a planter and merchant, in Virginia, ſalted up 3000 barrels of pork.'

Population and Character.] The population of this ſtate is exhibited in the foregoing table. By that it appears that the number of inhabitants in the ſtate, including the negroes, is 254,050; which is 18 for every ſquare mile. The inhabitants, except in the populous towns, live on their plantations, often ſeveral miles diſtant from each other. To an inhabitant of the middle, and eſpecially of the eaſtern ſtates, which are thickly populated, they appear to live very retired and unſocial lives. The effects of this comparative ſolitude are viſible in the countenances, as well as in the manners and dreſs of the country people. You obſerve very little of that chearful ſprightlineſs of look and action which is the invariable and genuine offspring of ſocial intercourſe. Nor do you find that attention paid to dreſs, which is common, and which decency and propriety have rendered neceſſary, among people who are liable to receive company almoſt every day. Unaccuſtomed, in a great meaſure, to theſe frequent and friendly viſits, they often ſuffer a negligence, in their dreſs which borders on ſlovelineſs. There is apparently a diſconſolate wildneſs in their countenances, and an indolence and inactivity in their whole behaviour, which are evidently the effects of ſolitude and ſlavery. As the negroes perform all the manual labour, their maſters are left to ſaunter away life in ſloth, and too often in ignorance. Theſe obſervations, however, muſt in juſtice be limited to the people in the country, and to thoſe particularly, whoſe poverty or parſimony prevents their ſpending a part of their time in populous towns, or otherwiſe mingling with the world. And with theſe limitations they will equally apply to all the ſouthern

ſouthern ſtates. The inhabitants of the populous towns, and thoſe from the country who have intercourſe with them, are in their manners and cuſtoms like the people of the other ſtates in like ſituations.

That pride which grows on ſlavery, and is habitual to thoſe who, from their infancy, are taught to believe and to feel their ſuperiority, is a viſible characteriſtic of the inhabitants of Maryland. But with this characteriſtic we muſt not fail to connect that of hoſpitality to ſtrangers, which is equally univerſal and obvious, and is, perhaps, in part, the offſpring of it.

The inhabitants are made up of various nations of many different religious ſentiments; few general obſervations, therefore, of a characteriſtical kind will apply.

Chief Towns.] ANNAPOLIS (city) is the capital of Maryland, and the wealthieſt town of its ſize in America. It is ſituated juſt at the mouth of Severn river, 30 miles ſouth of Baltimore. It is a place of little note in the commercial world. The houſes, about 260 in number, are generally large and elegant, indicative of great wealth. The deſign of thoſe who planned the city, was to have the whole in the form of a circle, with the ſtreets, like radii, beginning at the center where the Stadt Houſe ſtands, and thence diverging in every direction. The principal part of the buildings are arranged agreeable to this awkward plan. The Stadt Houſe is the nobleſt building of the kind in America.

BALTIMORE has had the moſt rapid growth of any town in the continent, and is the fourth in ſize, and the fifth in trade in the United States*. It lies in lat. 39° 21′, on the north ſide of Patapſco river, around what is called the Baſon, in which the water, at common tides, is about five or ſix feet deep. Baltimore is divided into the town and Fell's Point by a creek, over which are two bridges; but the houſes extend, in a ſparſe ſituation, from one to the other. At Fell's Point the water is deep enough for ſhips of burden; but ſmall veſſels only go up to the town. The ſituation of the town is low, and was formerly unhealthy; but the increaſe of houſes, and of courſe of ſmoke, the tendency of which is to deſtroy or to diſpel damp and unwholeſome vapours, and the improvements that have been made, particularly that of paving the ſtreets, have rendered it tolerably healthy. The houſes were numbered in 1787, and found to be 1955; about 1200 of which were in the town, and the reſt at Fell's Point. The number of ſtores was 152, and of churches nine; which belong to German Calviniſts and Lutherans, Epiſcopalians, Preſbyterians, Roman Catholics, Baptiſts, Methodiſts, Quakers, Nicolites, or New Quakers. The number of inhabitants is between 10 and 11,000. Not more than one in five of theſe attend public worſhip of any kind, notwithſtanding they have ſuch a variety in their choice. Their main object (in which, indeed, they are far from being peculiar) appears to be to make their fortunes for this world; while preparation for another is either unthought of, or deferred to a *more convenient ſeaſon.* There are many very reſpectable families in Baltimore, who live genteely—are hoſ-

* *In point of ſize, the towns in the United States may be ranked in this order; Philadelphia, New-York, Boſton, Baltimore, Charleſton, &c. In point of trade, New-York, Philadelphia, Boſton, Charleſton, Baltimore, &c.*

pitable to ſtrangers, and maintain a friendly and improving intercourſe with each other; but the bulk of the inhabitants, recently collected from almoſt all quarters of the world—bent on the purſuit of wealth—varying in their habits, their manners, and their religions, (if they have any) are unſocial, unimproved, and inhoſpitable.

Market-ſtreet is the principal ſtreet in the town, and runs nearly eaſt and weſt, a mile in length, parallel with the water. This is croſſed by ſeveral other ſtreets leading from the water, a number of which, particularly Calvert, South and Gay ſtreets, are well built. North and eaſt of the town the land riſes, and affords a fine proſpect of the town and bay. Belvidera, the ſeat of Col. Howard, exhibits one of the fineſt landſcapes in nature. The town—the point—the ſhipping both in the baſon and at Fell's Point—the bay as far as the eye can reach—riſing ground on the right and left of the harbour—a grove of trees on the declivity at the right—a ſtream of water breaking over the rocks at the foot of the hill on the left, all conſpire to complete the beauty and grandeur of the proſpect.

Fredericktown is a fine flouriſhing inland town, of upwards of 300 houſes, built principally of brick and ſtone, and moſtly on one broad ſtreet. It is ſituated in a fertile country, about four miles ſouth of Catokton mountain, and is a place of conſiderable trade. It has four places for public worſhip, one for Preſbyterians, two for Dutch Lutherans and Calviniſts, and one for Baptiſts; beſides a public jail and a brick market-houſe.

Hagarstown is but little inferior to Fredericktown, and is ſituated in the beautiful and well cultivated valley of Conegocheague, and carries on a conſiderable trade with the weſtern country.

Head of Elk is ſituated near the head of Cheſapeak bay, on a ſmall river which bears the name of the town. It enjoys great advantages from the carrying trade between Baltimore and Philadelphia. The tides ebb and flow to this town.

Mines and Manufactures.] Mines of iron ore, of a ſuperior quality, are found in many parts of the ſtate. Furnace for runing this ore into pigs and hollow ware, and forges to refine pig iron into bars, have been erected in a number of places in the neighbourhood of the mines. This is the only manufacture of importance, carried on in the ſtate, except it be that of wheat into flour.

Trade.] On this head I can only ſay, that the trade of Maryland is principally carried on from Baltimore with the other ſtates, with the Weſt-Indies, and with ſome parts of Europe. To theſe places they ſend annually about 30,000 hogſheads of tobacco, beſides large quantities of wheat, flour, pig iron, lumber and corn—beans, pork, and flax-ſeed in ſmaller quantities; and receive in return clothing for themſelves and negroes, and other dry goods, wines, ſpirits, ſugars, and other Weſt-India commodities. The balance is generally in their favour.

Religion.] The Roman Catholics, who were the firſt ſettlers in Maryland, are the moſt numerous religious ſect. Beſides theſe there are Proteſtant Epiſcopalians, Engliſh, Scotch and Iriſh Preſbyterians, German Calviniſts, German Lutherans, Friends, Baptiſts, of whome there are about

about twenty congregations, Methodiſts, Mennoniſts, Nicolites, or New Quakers.

Seminaries of Learning, &c.] Waſhington Academy, in Somerſet county, was inſtituted by law in 1779. It was founded and is ſupported by voluntary ſubſcriptions and private donations, and is authoriſed to receive gifts and legacies, and to hold 2000 acres of land. A ſupplement to the law paſſed in 1784, increaſed the number of truſtees from eleven to fifteen.

In 1782, a college was inſtituted at Cheſtertown, in Kent county, and was honoured with the name of WASHINGTON COLLEGE, after his Excellency General Waſhington. It is under the management of 24 viſitors, or governors, with power to ſupply vacancies, and hold eſtates, whoſe yearly value ſhall not exceed £.6000 current money. By a law enacted in 1787, a permanent fund was granted to this inſtitution of £.1250 a year currency, out of the monies ariſing from marriage licences, fines and forfeitures, on the Eaſtern Shore.

St. John's College was inſtituted in 1784, to have alſo 24 truſtees, with power to keep up the ſucceſſion by ſupplying vacancies, and to receive an annual income of £.9000. A permanent fund is aſſigned this college, of £.1750 a year out of the monies ariſing from marriage licences, ordinary licences, fines and forfeitures, on the Weſtern Shore. This college is to be at Annapolis, where a building is now preparing for it. Very liberal ſubſcriptions were obtained towards founding and carrying on theſe ſeminaries. The two colleges conſtitute one univerſity, by the name of 'The Univerſity of Maryland,' whereof the governor of the ſtate, for the time being, is chancellor, and the principal of one of them vice-chancellor, either by ſeniority or by election, as may hereafter be provided for by rule or by law. The chancellor is empowered to call a meeting of the truſtees, or a repreſentation of ſeven of each, and two of the members of the faculty of each, (the principal being one) which meeting is ſtiled, 'The Convocation of the Univerſity of Maryland,' who are to frame the laws, preſerve uniformity of manners and literature in the colleges, confer the higher degrees, determine appeals, &c.

The Roman Catholics have lately elected a college at George-Town, on Patomak river, for the promotion of general literature.

In 1785, the methodiſts inſtituted a college at Abingdon, in Harford county, by the name of Cokeſbury College, after Thomas Coke, LL. D. and Francis Aſbury, Biſhops of the Methodiſt Epiſcopal Church. The college edifice is of brick, handſomely built, on a healthy ſpot, enjoying a fine air and a very extenſive proſpect.

The ſtudents, who are to conſiſt of the ſons of travelling preachers, the ſons of annual ſubſcribers, the ſons of the members of the Methodiſt ſociety, and orphans, are to be inſtructed in Engliſh, Latin, Greek, Logic, Rhetoric, Hiſtory, Geography, Natural Philoſophy and Aſtronomy; and when the finances of the college will admit, they are to be taught the Hebrew, French and German languages.

The college was erected and is ſupported wholly by ſubſcription and voluntary donations.

The ſtudents have regular hours for riſing, for prayers, for their meals, for ſtudy and for recreation. They are all to be in bed preciſely at nine

o'clock. Their recreations (for they are to be indulged in nothing which the world calls *play,)* are gardening, walking, riding and bathing *without* doors, and *within* doors, the carpenters, joiners, cabinet-makers, or turners buſineſs. Suitable proviſion is made for theſe ſeveral occupations, which are to be conſidered, not as matters of drudgery and conſtraint, but as pleaſing and healthful recreations, both for the body and mind. Another of their rules, which though new and ſingular, is favourable to the health and vigour of the body and mind, is, that the ſtudents ſhall not ſleep on feather beds, but on mattreſſes, and each one by himſelf. Particular attention is paid to the morals and religion of the ſtudents.

There are a few other literary inſtitutions, of inferior note, in different parts of the ſtate, and proviſion is made for free-ſchools in moſt of the countries; though ſome are entirely neglected, and very few carried on with any ſucceſs: ſo that a great proportion of the lower claſs of people are ignorant; and there are not a few who cannot write their names. But the revolution, among other happy effects, has roufed the ſpirit of education, which is faſt ſpreading its ſalutary influences over this, and the other ſouthern ſtates.

Natural Curioſities.] There are ſeveral remarkable caves in the weſtern part of this ſtate, but particular and accurate deſcriptions of them have not been received.

Expences of Government and Taxes.] The annual expences of government are eſtimated at about £.20,000 currency. The revenue ariſes from duties and impoſts on imports and exports, and taxes on real and perſonal property.

Conſtitution.] The legiſlature is compoſed of two diſtinct branches, a *Senate* and *Houſe of Delegates,* and ſtiled, *The General Aſſembly of Maryland.*

The ſenators are elected in the following manner. On the firſt of September, every fifth year, the freemen chooſe two men in each county to be electors of the ſenate, and one elector for the city of Annapolis, and one for the town of Baltimore. Theſe electors muſt have the qualifications neceſſary for county delegates. They meet at Annapolis, or ſuch other place as ſhall be appointed for convening the legiſlature, the third Monday in September, every fifth year, and elect by ballot fifteen ſenators out of their own body, or from the people at large. Nine of theſe muſt be reſidents on the weſtern ſhore, and ſix on the eaſtern—they muſt be more than twenty-five years of age—muſt have reſided in the ſtate more than three years next preceeding the election, and have real and perſonal property about the value of a thouſand pounds. In caſe of the death, reſignation, or inability of a ſenator, during the five years for which he is elected, the vacancy is filled by the ſenate. The ſenate may originate any bills, except money bills, to which they can only give their aſſent or diſſent.

The ſenate chooſe their preſident by ballot.

The houſe of delegates is compoſed of four members for each county, choſen annually on the firſt Monday in October. The city of Annapolis and town of Baltimore ſend each two delegates. The qualifications of a delegate, are, full age, one year's reſidence in the county where he is choſen,

choſen and real or perſonal property above the value of five hundred pounds.

Both houſes chooſe their own officers, and judge of the election of their members. A majority of each is a quorum.

The election of ſenators and delegates is *viva voce*, and ſheriffs the returning officers, except in Baltimore town, where the commiſſioners ſuperintend the elections and make returns. The ſtated ſeſſion of the legiſlature is on the firſt Monday in November.

The qualifications of a freeman are full age, a freehold eſtate of fifty acres of land, and actual reſidence *in the county where he offers to vote*,—property to the value of thirty pounds *in any part of the ſtate*, and a year's reſidence in the county where he offers to vote.

On the ſecond Monday in November, annually, a government is appointed by the joint ballot of both houſes, taken in each houſe reſpectively, and depoſited in a conference room; where the boxes are examined by a joint committee of both houſes, and the number of votes ſeverally reported. The governor cannot continue in office longer than three years ſucceſſively, nor be elected until the expiration of four years after he has been out of office.

The qualifications for the chief magiſtracy are twenty-five years of age, five years reſidence in the ſtate, next preceding the election, and real and perſonal eſtate above the value of five thouſand pounds, one thouſand of which muſt be freehold eſtate.

On the ſecond Tueſday of November, annually, the ſenators and delegates elect by joint ballot, five able, diſcreet men, above twenty-five years of age, reſidents in the ſtate three years next preceding the election, and poſſeſſing a freehold of lands and tenements above the value of a thouſand pounds, to be a council for aſſiſting the governor in the duties of his office.

Senator, delegates and members of council, while ſuch, can hold no other office of profit, nor receive the profits of any office exerciſed by another.

Miniſters of the goſpel are excluded from civil offices.

The governor, with the advice of his council, appoints the chancellor, all judges and juſtices, the attorney general, naval and militia officers, regiſters of the land office, ſurveyors, and all other civil officers, except conſtables, aſſeſſors and overſeers of the roads.

A court of appeals is eſtabliſhed for the final determination of all cauſes, which may be brought from the general court * of admiralty or of chancery.

This conſtitution was eſtabliſhed by a convention of delegates, at Annapolis, Auguſt 14, 1776.

Hiſtory.] Maryland was granted by king Charles I. to Cecilius Calvert, baron of Baltimore, in Ireland, June 20, 1632. The government of the province was, by charter, veſted in the proprietary; but it appears that he either never exerciſed theſe powers alone, or but for a ſhort time; for we find that in 1637, the freemen rejected a body of laws drawn up in

* *In ſome of the eaſtern ſtates the legiſlature is called* The General Court. *In ſome of the ſouthern, the* General Court *is the* Supreme Judicial Court.

England,

England, and tranſmitted by his Lordſhip, in order to be paſſed for the government of the province. In the place of theſe, they propoſed forty-two bills to be enacted into laws, by the conſent of the proprietary. Theſe were however never enacted; at leaſt they are not on record.

The hon. Leonard Calvert, Eſq; lord Baltimore's brother, was the firſt governor, or lieutenant general. In 1638, a law was paſſed, conſtituting the firſt regular *Houſe of Aſſembly*, which was to conſiſt of ſuch repreſentatives, called *Burgeſſes*, as ſhould be elected purſuant to writs iſſued by the governor. Theſe burgeſſes poſſeſſed *all the powers of the perſons electing them*; but any other freemen who did not aſſent to the election, might take their ſeats in perſon. *Twelve* burgeſſes or freemen, with the lieutenant general and ſecretary, conſtituted the aſſembly or legiſlature. This aſſembly ſat at St. Mary's, one of the ſouthern counties, which was the firſt ſettled part of Maryland.

In 1642, it was enacted that *ten* members of the aſſembly, of whom the governor and ſix burgeſſes were to be *ſeven*, ſhould be a houſe; and if ſickneſs ſhould prevent that number from attending, the members preſent ſhould make a houſe.

In 1644, one Ingle excited a rebellion, forced the governor to fly to Virginia for aid and protection, and ſeized the records and the great ſeal; the laſt of which, with moſt of the records of the province, were loſt or deſtroyed. From this period, to the year 1647, when order was reſtored, the proceedings of the province are involved in obſcurity.

In July 1642, the houſe of aſſembly, or more properly the burgeſſes, requeſted they might be ſeperated into two benches—the burgeſſes by themſelves, with a negative upon bills. This was not granted by the lieutenant general at that time; but in 1650, an act was paſſed dividing the aſſembly into two houſes. The governor, ſecretary, and any one or more of the council formed the *Upper Houſe*; the delegates from the ſeveral hundreds, who now repreſent the freemen, formed the *Lower Houſe*. At this time there were in the province but two counties, St. Mary's and the Iſle of Kent; but Ann Arundel was added, the ſame ſeſſion. This was during the Adminiſtration of governor Stone.

In 1654, during Cromwell's uſurpation in England, an act was paſſed, reſtraining the exerciſe of the Roman Catholic religion. This muſt have been procured by the mere terror of Cromwell's power, for the firſt and principal inhabitants were Catholics. Indeed the power of Cromwell was not eſtabliſhed in Maryland without force and bloodſhed. His friends and foes came to an open rupture, an engagement enſued, governor Stone was taken priſoner and condemned to be ſhot. This ſentence however was not executed, but he was kept a long time in confinement.

In March, 1658, Joſiah Fendall, Eſq; was appointed lieutenant general of Maryland by commiſſion from Oliver Cromwell. He diſſolved the upper houſe, and ſurrendered the powers of government into the hands of the delegates.

Upon the reſtoration in 1660, the hon. Philip Calvert, Eſq; was appointed governor; the old form of government was revived; Fendall, and one Gerrard, a counſellor, were indicted, found guilty and condemned to baniſhment, with the loſs of their eſtates: but upon petition they were pardoned.

In

In 1689, the government was taken out of the lands of lord Baltimore by the grand convention of England; and in 1692 Mr. Copley was appointed governor by commiſſion from William and Mary.

In 1692, the *Proteſtant* religion was eſtabliſhed by law.

In 1699, under the adminiſtration of governor Blackiſton, it was enacted that Annapolis ſhould be the ſeat of government.

In 1716, the government of this province was reſtored to the proprietary, and continued in his hands till the late revolution, when being an abſentee, his property in the lands was confiſcated, and the government aſſumed by the freemen of the province, who formed the conſtitution now exiſting. At the cloſe of the war, Henry, Harford, Eſq; the natural ſon and heir of lord Baltimore, petitioned the legiſlature of Maryland for his eſtate; but his petition was not granted. Mr. Harford eſtimated his loſs of quit-rents, valued at twenty years purchaſe, and including arrears, at £.259,488:5:0, dollars at 7s. 6d.—and the value of his manors and reſerved lands at £.327,441 of the ſame money.

LIST *of the* GOVERNORS, *with the dates of their appointments.*

Hon. Leonard Calvert, Eſq; appointed Governor	1637
Thomas Green, Eſq;	1647
William Stone, Eſq;	1649
The government remained in the hands of the parliament commiſſioners during the time of Oliver Cromwell's uſurpation	1654
The commiſſioners, by certain articles of agreement then entered into, delivered up the government into the hands of Jonah Fendale, Eſq; then Governor	1658
Hon. Philip Calvert made Governor	1660
Charles Calvert, Eſq;	1662
Upon the death of Cecilius, the government deſcended to Charles, Lord Baltimore, who came into the province	1675
Thomas Notley, Eſq; Governor	1678
Who continued till his Lordſhip returned a ſecond time to the province in	1681
King William and Queen Mary took upon them the government, and appointed Lyonel Copley, Eſq; Governor	1692
Francis Nicholſon, Eſq;	1694
Upon the death of Queen Mary, the government was altogether in the hands of king William III.	1696
Nathaniel Blackiſton, Eſq; Governor	1699
By the death of King William III. Queen Anne took upon her the government—and the ſame governor was continued	1701-2
Thomas Finch, Eſq; Preſident	1703
John Seymour, Eſq; Governor	1704
Edward Lloyd, Eſq; Preſident	1704
John Hart, Eſq; Governor	1714
Upon the death of Queen Anne, King George I. took upon him the government—and the ſame Governor was continued	1715
The government was reſtored to Charles, Lord Baltimore, who iſſued a new commiſſion to John Hart, Eſq;	1716
Charles Calvert, Eſq; Governor	1720
Benedict Leonard Calvert, Eſq; Governor	1727

The

The Proprietor came into the province in	1733
And returned to England	1734
Samuel Ogle, Esq; Governor	1737
Thomas Bladen, Esq; Governor	1742
Samuel Ogle, Esq; Governor	1747
By the death of Charles, Lord Baltimore, the province descended to his son Frederick.—Governor Ogle died the same year	1751
Benjamin Tasker, Esq; President	1751
Horatio Sharp, Esq; Governor	1753
Robert Eden, Esq; Governor	1769
Frederick, Lord Baron of Baltimore, died	1771
Robert Eden, Esq; Governor	1773

The list of the governors of this state, with the times of their election into office, since the revolution, has not been received.

VIRGINIA*.

SITUATION and EXTENT.

Miles.		
Length 758	Between	36° 30′ and 40° North Latitude.
Breadth 224		The Meridian of Philadelphia, and 14* West Longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED east, by the Atlantic ocean; north, by Pennsylvania and the river Ohio; west, by the Mississippi; south, by North Carolina.

Mr. Jefferson describes the boundaries more particularly, as follows; 'Virginia is bounded on the east, by the Atlantic; on the north, by a line of latitude, crossing the eastern shore through Watkins's Point, being about 37° 57′ north latitude; from thence by a streight line to Cinquac. near the mouth of Patomak; thence by the Patomak, which is common to Virginia and Maryland, to the first fountain of its northern branch; thence by a meridian line, passing through that fountain till it intersects a line running east and west, in latitude 39° 43′ 42.4″, which divides Maryland from Pennsylvania, and which was marked by Messrs. Mason and Dixon; thence by that line, and a continuation of it westwardly to the completion of five degrees of longitude from the eastern boundary of Pennsylvania, in the same latitude, and thence by a meridian line to the Ohio; on the west, by the Ohio and Mississippi, to

* *In the following description of Virginia, what is included between inverted commas (except in the instances where the reader is otherwise informed) is taken from the* 'History of Virginia,' *by* THOMAS JEFFERSON, Esq. *to which is prefixed a* large whole sheet map of Virginia, *drawn with the utmost accuracy.—Such readers as may wish for further information relating to Virginia, will find themselves highly gratified by the perusal of Mr.* Jefferson's *History.*

latitude

latitude 36° 30′ north; and on the south, by the line of latitude last-mentioned. By admeasurement through nearly the whole of this last line, and supplying the unmeasured parts from good data, the Altantic and Mississippi are found in this latitude to be 758 miles distant, equal to 13° 38′ of longitude, reckoning 55 miles and 3144 feet to the degree. This being our comprehension of longitude, that of our latitude, taken between this and Mason and Dixon's line, is 3° 13′ 42.4″, equal to 223.3 miles, supposing a degree of a great circle to be 69 m. 864 f. as computed by Cassini. These boundaries include an area somewhat triangular, of 121,525 miles, whereof 79,650 lie westward of the Allegany mountains, and 57,034 westward of the meridian of the mouth of the Great Kanhaway. This state is therefore one-third larger than the islands of Great-Britain and Ireland, which are reckoned at 88,357 square miles.

'These limits result from, 1. The ancient charters from the crown of England. 2. The grant of Maryland to the Lord Baltimore, and the subsequent determinations of the British court as to the extent of that grant. 3. The grant of Pennsylvania to William Penn, and a compact between the general assemblies of the commonwealths of Virginia and Pennsylvania as to the extent of that grant. 4. The grant of Carolina, and actual location of its northern boundary, by consent of both parties. 5. The treaty of Paris, of 1763. 6. The confirmation of the charters of the neighbouring states by the convention of Virginia at the time of constituting their commonwealth. 7. The cession made by Virginia to Congress of all the lands to which they had title on the north side of the Ohio.'

Rivers.] 'An inspection of a map of Virginia, will give a better idea of the geography of its rivers, than any description in writing. Their navigation may be imperfectly noted.

'*Roanoke*, so far as it lies within this state, is no where navigable, but for canoes, or light batteaux; and, even for these, in such detached parcels as to have prevented the inhabitants from availing themselves of it all.

'*James River*, and its waters, afford navigation as follows:

'The whole of *Elizabeth River*, the lowest of those which run into James River, is a harbour, and would contain upwards of 300 ships. The channel is from 150 to 200 fathom wide, and at common flood tide, affords 18 feet water to Norfolk. The Strafford, a 60 gun ship, went there, lightening herself to cross the bar at Sowell's point. The Fier Rodrigue, pierced for 64 guns, and carrying 50, went there without lightening. Craney island, at the mouth of this river, commands its channel tolerably well.

'*Nansemond River* is navigable to Sleepy Hole, for vessels of 250 tons; to Suffolk, for those of 100 tons; and to Milner's, for those of 25.

'*Pagan Creek* affords 8 or 10 feet water to Smithfield, which admits vessels of 20 tons.

'*Chickahominy* has at its mouth a bar, on which is only 12 feet water at common flood tide. Vessels passing that, may go 8 miles up the river; those of ten feet draught may go four miles further, and those of six tons burthen, 20 miles further.

'*Appamattox*

'*Appamattox* may be navigated as far as Broadways, by any veſſel which has croſſed Harriſon's bar in James River; it keeps 8 or 9 feet water a mile or two higher up to Fiſher's bar, and 4 feet on that and upwards to Peterſburg, where all navigation ceaſes.

'*James River* itſelf affords harbour for veſſels of any ſize in Hampton Road, but not in ſafety through the whole winter; and there is navigable water for them as far as Mulberry iſland. A 40 gun ſhip goes to James-town, and, lightening herſelf, may paſs to Harriſon's bar, on which there is only 15 feet water. Veſſels of 250 tons may go to Warwick; thoſe of 125 go to Rocket's, a mile below Richmond; from thence is about 7 feet water to Richmond; and about the center of the town, four feet and a half, where the navigation is interrupted by falls, which in a courſe of ſix miles deſcend about 80 feet perpendicular; above theſe it is reſumed in canoes and batteaux, and is proſecuted ſafely and advantageouſly to within 10 miles of the Blue Ridge; and even through the Blue Ridge a ton weight has been brought; and the expence would not be great, when compared with its object, to open a tolerable navigation up Jackſon's river and Carpenter's creek, to within 25 miles of Howard's creek of Green Briar, both of which have then water enough to float veſſels into the Great Kanhaway. In ſome future ſtate of population, I think it poſſible, that its navigation may alſo be made to interlock with that of the Patomak, and through that to communicate by a ſhort portage with the Ohio. It is to be noted, that this river is called in the maps *James River*, only to its confluence with the Rivanna; thence to the Blue Ridge it is called the Fluvanna; and thence to its ſource, Jackſon's river. But in common ſpeech it is called James river to its ſource.

'The *Rivanna*, a branch of James river, is navigable for canoes and batteaux to its interſection with the ſouth-weſt mountains, which is about 22 miles, and may eaſily be opened to navigation through thoſe mountains to its fork about Charlotteſville.

'*York River*, at York-town, affords the beſt harbour in the ſtate for veſſels of the largeſt ſize. The river there narrows to the width of a mile, and is contained within very high banks, cloſe under which the veſſels may ride. It holds 4 fathom water at high tide for 25 miles above York, to the mouth of Poropotank, where the river is a mile and a half wide, and the channel 75 fathom, and paſſing under a high bank. At the confluence of *Pamunkey* and *Mattapony*, it is reduced to 3 fathom depth, which continues up Pamunkey to Cumberland, where the width is 100 yards, and up Mattapony to within two miles of Frazer's ferry, where it becomes $2\frac{1}{2}$ fathom deep, and holds that about five miles. Pamunkey is then capable of navigation for loaded flats to Brockman's bride, 50 miles above Hanover town, and Mattaponey to Downer's bridge, 70 miles above its mouth.

'*Piankatank*, the little rivers making out of *Mobjack bay*, and thoſe of the *eaſtern ſhore*, receive only very ſmall veſſels, and theſe can but enter them.

'*Rappahannok* affords 4 fathom water to Hobb's Hole's and two fathom from thence to Fredericksburg.

'*Patomak*

'*Patomak* is $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles wide at the mouth; $4\frac{1}{2}$ at Nomony Bay; 3 at Aquia; $1\frac{1}{2}$ at Hallooing Point; $4\frac{1}{4}$ at Alexandria. Its foundings are, 7 fathom at the mouth; 5 at St. George's iſland; $4\frac{1}{2}$ at Lower Matchodic; 3 at Swan's Point, and thence up to Alexandria; thence 10 feet water to the falls, which are 13 miles above Alexandria.'

The diſtance from the Capes of Virginia to the termination of the tide-water in this river is above 300 miles; and navigable for ſhips of the greateſt burthen nearly to that place. From thence this river, obſtructed by four conſiderable falls, extends through a vaſt tract of inhabited country towards its ſource. Theſe falls are, 1ſt, The *Little Falls*, three miles above tide water, in which diſtance there is a fall of 36 feet: 2d, The *Great Falls*, ſix miles higher, where is a fall of 76 feet in one mile and a quarter: 3d, The *Seneca Falls*, ſix miles above the former, which form ſhort, irregular rapids, with a fall of about 10 feet; and 4th, the *Shenandoah Falls*, 60 miles from the *Seneca*, where is a fall of about 30 feet in three miles; from which laſt, *Fort Cumberland* is about 120 miles diſtant. The obſtructions, which are oppoſed to the navigation above and between theſe falls, are of little conſequence.

Early in the year 1785, the *Legiſlatures* of *Virginia* and *Maryland* paſſed acts to encourage opening the navigation of this river. It was eſtimated that the expence of the works would amount to £.50,000 ſterling, and ten years were allowed for their completion. At preſent the preſident and directors of the incorporated company ſuppoſe that £.45,000 will be adequate to the operation, and that it will be accompliſhed in a ſhorter period than was ſtipulated. Their calulations are founded on the progreſs already made, and the ſummary mode lately eſtabliſhed for enforcing the collection of the dividends, as the money may become neceſſary. On each ſhare of £.100, the payment of only £.40 has yet been demanded.

According to the opinion of the preſident and directors, *locks* will be neceſſary at no more than two places—the *Great* and the *Little Falls*: ſix at the former, and three at the latter. At the latter nothing has yet been attempted. At the *Great Falls*, where the difficulties were judged by many to be inſurmountable, the work is nearly completed, except ſinking the lock-ſeats, and inſerting the frames. At the *Seneca Falls* the laborious part of the buſineſs is entirely accompliſhed, by removing the obſtacles and graduating the deſcent; ſo that nothing remains but to finiſh the channel for this gentle current in a workmanlike manner. At the *Shenandoah*, where the river breaks through the Blue Ridge, though a prodigious quantity of labour has been beſtowed, yet much is ſtill to be done before the paſſage will be perfected. Such proficiency has been made, however, that it was expected, if the ſummer had not proved uncommonly rainy, and the river uncommonly high, an avenue for a partial navigation would have been opened by the firſt of January, 1789, from *Fort Cumberland* to the *Great Falls*, which are within nine miles of a ſhipping port. As it has happened, it may require a conſiderable part of this year for its accompliſhment.

As ſoon as the proprietors ſhall begin to receive toll, they will doubtleſs find an ample compenſation for their pecuniary advances. By an eſtimate made many years ago, it was calculated that the amount, in the commencement

mencement, would be at the rate of £.11,875, Virginia currency, per annum. The toll muſt every year become more productive, as the quantity of articles for exportation will be augmented in a rapid ratio, with the increaſe of population and the extention of ſettlements. In the mean time the effect will be immediately ſeen in the agriculture of the interior country: for the multitude of horſes now employed in carrying produce to market, will then be uſed altogether for the purpoſe of tillage. But, in order to form juſt conceptions of the utility of this inland navigation, it would be requiſite to notice the long rivers which empty into the Patomak, and even to take a ſurvey of the geographical poſition of the *weſtern waters*.

The *Shenandoah*, which diſembogues juſt above the Blue Mountains, may, according to report, be made navigable, at a trifling expence, more than 150 miles from its confluence with the Patomak; and will receive and bear the produce of the richeſt part of the ſtate. The South Branch, ſtill higher, is navigable in its actual condition nearly or quite 100 miles, through exceedingly fertile lands. Between theſe, on the Virginia ſide, are ſeveral ſmaller rivers, that may, with facility, be improved, ſo as to afford a paſſage for boats. On the *Maryland* ſide are the Monocaſy, Antietam, and Conegocheague, ſome of which paſs through the ſtate of Maryland, and have their ſources in Pennſylvania.

From Fort Cumberland (or Wills' Creek) one or two good waggon roads may be had (where the diſtance is ſaid by ſome to be 35, and by others 40 miles) to the Yohogany, a large and navigable branch of the Monongahela; which laſt forms a junction with the Allegany at Fort Pitt: from whence the river takes the name of the *Ohio*, until it loſes its current and name in the MISSISSIPI.

But, by paſſing farther up the Patomak than Fort Cumberland, which may very eaſily be done, a portage by a good waggon road to the Cheat River, another large branch of the Monongahela, can be obtained through a ſpace which ſome ſay is 20, others 22, others 25, and none more than 30 miles.

When we have arrived at either of theſe weſtern waters, the navigation through that immenſe region is opened in a thouſand directions, and to the lakes in ſeveral places by portages of leſs than 10 miles; and by one portage, it is aſſerted, of not more than a ſingle mile.

Notwithſtanding it was ſneeringly ſaid by ſome foreigners, at the beginning of this undertaking, that the Americans were fond of engaging in ſplendid projects which they could never accompliſh; yet it is hoped the ſucceſs of this firſt eſſay towards improving their inland navigation, will, in ſome degree, reſcue them from the reproach intended to have been fixed upon their national character, by the unmerited imputation.

'The *Great Kanhaway* is a river of conſiderable note for the fertility of its lands, and ſtill more, as leading towards the head waters of James river. Nevertheleſs, it is doubtful whether its great and numerous rapids will admit a navigation, but at an expence to which it will require ages to render its inhabitants equal. The great obſtacles begin at what are called the Great Falls, 90 miles above the mouth, below which are only five or ſix rapids, and theſe paſſable, with ſome difficulty, even at low water.

From

From the falls to the mouth of Green Briar is 100 miles, and thence to the lead mines 120. It is 280 yards wide at its mouth.

'The *Little Kanhaway* is 150 yards wide at the mouth. It yields a navigation of 10 miles only. Perhaps its northern branch, called Junius' Creek, which interlocks with the weſtern waters of Monongahela, may one day admit a ſhorter paſſage from the latter into the Ohio.'

Mountains.] 'For the particular geography of our mountains, I muſt refer to Fry and Jefferſon's map of Virginia; and to Evans's analyſis of his map of America for a more philoſophical view of them than is to be found in any other work. It is worthy notice, that our mountains are not ſolitary, and ſcattered confuſedly over the face of the country; but that they commence at about 150 miles from the ſea coaſt, are diſpoſed in ridges one behind another, running nearly parallel with the ſea coaſt, though rather approaching it as they advance north-eaſtwardly. To the ſouth-weſt, as the tract of country between the ſea coaſt and the Miſſiſippi becomes narrower, the mountains converge into a ſingle ridge, which, as it approaches the Gulph of Mexico, ſubſides into plain country, and gives riſe to ſome of the waters of that Gulph, and particularly to a river called the Apalachicola, probably from the Apalachies, an India nation formerly reſiding on it. Hence the mountains giving riſe to that river, and ſeen from its various parts, were called the Apalachian Mountains, being in fact the end or termination only of the great ridges paſſing through the continent. European geographers however extended the name northwardly as far as the mountains extended; ſome giving it, after their ſeparation into different ridges, to the Blue Ridge, others to the North Mountains, others to the Allegany, others to the Laurel Ridge, as may be ſeen in their different maps. But the fact I believe is, that none of theſe ridges were ever known by that name to the inhabitants, either native or emigrant, but as they ſaw them ſo called in European maps. In the ſame direction generally are the veins of lime-ſtone, coal and other minerals hitherto diſcovered; and ſo range the falls of our great rivers. But the courſes of the great rivers are at right angles with theſe. James and Patomak penetrate through all the ridges of mountains eaſtward of the Allegany, that is broken by no water courſe. It is in fact the ſpine of the country between the Atlantic on one ſide, and the Miſſiſippi and St. Lawrence on the other. The paſſage of the Patomak through the Blue Ridge is perhaps one of the moſt ſtupendous ſcenes in nature. You ſtand on a very high point of land. On your right comes up the Shenandoah, having ranged alone the foot of the mountain an hundred miles to ſeek a vent. On your left approaches the Patomak, in queſt of a paſſage alſo. In the moment of their junction they ruſh together againſt the mountain, rend it aſunder, and paſs off to the ſea. The firſt glance of this ſcene hurries our ſenſes into the opinion, that this earth has been created in time, that the mountains were formed firſt, that the rivers began to flow afterwards, that in this place particularly they have been dammed up by the Blue Ridge of mountains, and have formed an ocean which filled the whole valley; that continuing to riſe they have at length broken over at this ſpot, and have torn the mountain down from its ſummit to its baſe. The piles of rock on each hand, but particularly on the Shenandoah, the evident marks of their diſruption and avulſion from their beds by the moſt powerful

powerful agents of nature, corroborate the impreſſion. But the diſtant finiſhing which nature has given to the picture is of a very different character. It is a true contraſt to the fore ground. It is as placid and delightful, as that is wild and tremendous. For the mountain being cloven aſunder, ſhe preſents to your eye, through the cleft, a ſmall catch of ſmooth blue horizon, at an infinite diſtance in the plain country, inviting you, as it were, from the riot and tumult roaring around, to paſs through the breach, and participate of the calm below. Here the eye ultimately compoſes itſelf; and that way too the road happens actually to lead. You croſs the Patomak above the junction, paſs along its ſide through the baſe of the mountain for three miles, its terrible precipices hanging in fragments over you, and within about 20 miles reach Frederick town and the fine country round that. This ſcene is worth a voyage acroſs the Atlantic. Yet here, as in the neighbourhood of the natural bridge, are people who have paſſed their lives within half a dozen miles, and have never been to ſurvey theſe monuments of a war between rivers and mountains, which muſt have ſhaken the earth itſelf to its center.—The height of our mountains has not yet been eſtimated with any degree of exactneſs. The Allegany being the great ridge which divides the waters of the Atlantic from thoſe of the Miſſiſippi, its ſummit is doubtleſs more elevated above the ocean than that of any other mountain. But its relative height, compared with the baſe on which it ſtands, is not ſo great as that of ſome others, the country riſing behind the ſucceſſive ridges like the ſteps of ſtairs. The mountains of the Blue Ridge, and of theſe the Peaks of Otter, are thought to be of a greater height, meaſured from their baſe, than any others in our country, and perhaps in North America. From data, which may be found a tolerable conjecture, we ſuppoſe the higheſt peak to be about 4000 feet perpendicular, which is not a fifth part of the height of the mountains of South America, nor one third of the height which would be neceſſary in our latitude to preſerve ice in the open air unmelted through the year. The ridge of mountains next beyond the Blue Ridge, called by us the North Mountains, is of the greateſt extent; for which reaſon they are named by the Indians the Endleſs Mountains.

'A ſubſtance ſuppoſed to be pumice, found floating on the Miſſiſippi, has induced a conjecture, that there is a volcano on ſome of its waters: and as theſe are moſtly known to their ſources, except the Miſſouri, our expectations of verifying the conjecture would of courſe be led to the mountains which divide the waters of the Mexican Gulph from thoſe of the South Sea; but no volcano having ever yet been known at ſuch a diſtance from the ſea, we muſt rather ſuppoſe that this floating ſubſtance has been erroneouſly deemed pumice.

Caſcades and Caverns.] 'The only remarkable caſcade in this country, is that of the Falling Spring, in Auguſta. It is a water of James river, where it is called Jackſon's river, riſing in the warm ſpring mountains, about 20 miles ſouth-weſt of the warm ſpring, and flowing into that valley. About three quarters of a mile from its ſource, it falls over a rock 200 feet into the valley below. The ſheet of water is broken in its breadth by the rock in two or three places, but not at all in its height. Between the ſheet and rock, at the bottom, you may walk acroſs dry. This cataract will bear no compariſon with that of Niagara, as to the quantity of water compoſing

compoſing it; the ſheet being only 12 or 15 feet wide above, and ſomewhat more ſpread below; but it is half as high again, the latter being only 156 feet, according to the menſuration made by order of Mr. Vandreuil, Governor of Canada, and 130 according to a more recent account.

In the lime-ſtone country, there are many caverns of very conſiderable extent. The moſt noted is called Madiſon's Cave, and is on the north ſide of the Blue Ridge, near the interſection of the Rockingham and Auguſta line with the ſouth fork of the ſouthern river of Shenandoah. It is in a hill of about 200 feet perpendicular height, the aſcent of which, on one ſide, is ſo ſteep, that you may pitch a biſcuit from its ſummit into the river which waſhes its baſe. The entrance of the cave is, in this ſide, about two thirds of the way up. It extends into the earth about 300 feet, branching into ſubordinate caverns, ſometimes aſcending a little, but more generally deſcending, and at length terminates, in two different places, at baſons of water of unknown extent, and which I ſhould judge to be nearly on a level with the water of the river; however, I do not think they are formed by refluent water from that, becauſe they are never turbid; becauſe they do not riſe and fall in correſpondence with that in times of flood, or of drought; and becauſe the water is always cool. It is probably one of the many reſervoirs with which the interior parts of the earth are ſuppoſed to abound, and which yield ſupplies to the fountains of water, diſtinguiſhed from others only by its being acceſſible. The vault of this cave is of ſolid lime-ſtone, from 20 to 40 or 50 feet high, through which water is continually percolating. This, trickling down the ſides of the cave, has incruſted them over in the form of elegant drapery; and dripping from the top of the vault generates on that, and on the baſe below, ſtalactites of a conical form ſome of which have met and formed maſſive columns.

'Another of thoſe caves is near the North Mountain, in the county of Frederick, on the lands of Mr. Zane. The entrance into this is on the top of an extenſive ridge. You deſcend 30 or 40 feet, as into a well, from whence the cave then extends, nearly horizontally, 400 feet into the earth, preſerving a breadth of from 20 to 50 feet, and a height of from 5 to 12 feet. After entering this cave a few feet, the mercury, which in the open air was at 50°, roſe to 57° of Farenheit's thermometer, anſwering to 11° of Reaumur's, and it continued at that to the remoteſt parts of the cave. The uniform temperature of the cellars of the obſervatory of Paris, which are 90 feet deep, and of all ſubterranean cavities of any depth, where no chymical agents may be ſuppoſed to produce a factitious heat, has been found to be 10° of Reaumur, equal to 54°½ of Farenheit. The temperature of the cave above-mentioned ſo nearly correſponds with this, that the difference may be aſcribed to a difference of inſtruments.

'At the Panther gap, in the ridge which divides the waters of the Cow and the Calf paſture, is what is called the *Blowing Cave*. It is in the ſide of a hill, is of about 100 feet diameter, and emits conſtantly a current of air of ſuch force, as to keep the weeds proſtrate to the diſtance of twenty yards before it. This current is ſtrongeſt in dry froſty weather, and in long ſpells of rain weakeſt. Regular inſpirations and expirations

expirations of air, by caverns and fiſſures, have been probably enough accounted for, by ſuppoſing them combined with intermitting fountains; as they muſt of courſe inhale air while their reſervoirs are emptying themſelves, and again emit it while they are filling. But a conſtant iſſue of air, only varying in its force as the weather is drier or damper, will require a new hypotheſis. There is another blowing cave in the Cumberland mountain, about a mile from where it croſſes the Carolina line. All we know of this is, that it is not conſtant, and that a fountain of water iſſues from it.

'The *Natural Bridge*, the moſt ſublime of Nature's works, though not comprehended under the preſent head, muſt not be pretermitted. It is on the aſcent of a hill, which ſeems to have been cloven through its length by ſome great convulſion. The fiſſure, juſt at the bridge, is, by ſome admeaſurements, 270 feet deep, by others, only 205. It is about 45 feet wide at the bottom, and 90 feet at the top; this of courſe determines the length of the bridge, and its height from the water. Its breadth in the middle is about 60 feet, but more at the ends, and the thickneſs of the maſs at the ſummit of the arch, about 40 feet. A part of this thickneſs is conſtituted by a coat of earth, which gives growth to many large trees. The reſidue, with the hill on both ſides, is one ſolid rock of lime-ſtone. The arch approches the ſemi-elliptical form; but the larger axis of the ellipſis, which would be the cord of the arch, is many times longer than the tranſverſe. Through the ſides of this bridge are provided in ſome parts with a parapet of fixed rocks, yet few men have reſolution to walk to them, and look over into the abyſs. You involuntarily fall on your hands and feet, creep to the parapet, and peep over it. Looking down from this height about a minute, gave me a violent head-ach. If the view from the top be painful and intolerable, that from below is delightful in an equal extreme. It is impoſſible for the emotions ariſing from the ſublime, to be felt beyond what they are here: ſo beautiful an arch, ſo elevated, ſo light, and ſpringing as it were up to Heaven, the rapture of the ſpectator is really indeſcribable! The fiſſure continuing narrow, deep, and ſtreight for a conſiderable diſtance above and below the bridge, opens a ſhort but very pleaſing view of the North mountains on the ſide, and Blue Ridge on the other, at the diſtance each of them of about five miles. This bridge is in the county of Rock bridge, to which it has given name, and affords a public and commodious paſſage over a valley, which cannot be croſſed elſewhere for a conſiderable diſtance. The ſtream paſſing under it is called Cedar creek. It is a water of James river, and ſufficient in the drieſt ſeaſons to turn a griſt-mill, though its fountain is not more than two miles above *."' There is a natural bridge, ſimilar to the one above deſcribed, over Stock creek, a branch of Peleſon river, in Waſhington county.

* *Don Ulloa mentions a break, ſimilar to this, in the province of Angaraez, in South-America. It is from* 16 *to* 22 *feet wide,* 111 *deep, and of* 1¾ *miles continuance, Engliſh meaſure. Its breadth at top is not ſenſibly greater than at bottom.*

Miles

Mines and Minerals.] 'I knew a ſingle inſtance of gold found in this ſtate. It was interſperſed in ſmall ſpecks through a lump of ore, of about four pounds weight, which yielded ſeventeen penny-weights of gold, of extraordinary ductility. This ore was found on the north ſide of Rappahannock, about four miles below the falls. I never heard of any other indication of gold in its neighbourhood.

'On the Great Kanhaway, oppoſite to the mouth of Cripple creek, and about 25 miles from our ſouthern boundary, in the county of Montgomery, are mines of lead. The metal is mixed, ſometimes with earth, and ſometimes with rock, which requires the force of gunpowder to open it; and is accompanied with a portion of ſilver, too ſmall to be worth ſeparation under any proceſs hitherto attempted there. The proportion yielded is from 50 to 80 lb. of pure metal from 100 lb. of waſhed ore. The moſt common is that of 60 to the lb. The veins are at ſometimes moſt flattering; at others they diſappear ſuddenly and totally. They enter the ſide of the hill, and proceed horizontally. Two of them are wrought at preſent by the public, the beſt of which is 100 yards under the hill. Theſe would employ about 50 labourers to advantage. We have not, however, more than 30 generally, and theſe cultivate their own corn. They have produced 60 tons of lead in the year; but the general quantity is from 20 to 25 tons. The preſent furnace is a mile from the ore bank, and on the oppoſite ſide of the river. The ore is firſt waggoned to the river, a quarter of a mile, then laden on board of canoes, and carried acroſs the river, which is there about 200 yards wide, and then again taken into waggons, and carried to the furnace. This mode was originally adopted, that they might avail themſelves of a good ſituation on a creek for a pounding mill: but it would be eaſy to have the furnace and pounding mill on the ſame ſide of the river, which would yield water, without any dam, by a canal of about half a mile in length. From the furnace the lead is tranſported 130 miles along a good road, leading through the peaks of Otter to Lynch's ferry, or Winſton's on James river, from whence it is carried by water about the ſame diſtance to Weſtham. This land carriage may be greatly ſhortened, by delivering the lead on James river, above the Blue Ridge, from whence a ton weight has been brought in two canoes. The Great Kanhaway has conſiderable falls in the neighbourhood of the mines. About ſeven miles below are three falls, of three or four feet perpendicular each: and three miles above is a rapid of three miles continuance, which has been compared in its deſcent to the great fall of James river. Yet it is the opinion, that they may be laid open for uſeful navigation, ſo as to reduce very much the portage between the Kanhaway and James river.

'A valuable lead mine is ſaid to have been lately diſcovered in Cumberland, below the mouth of Red river. The greateſt, however, known in the weſtern country, are on the Miſſiſippi extending from the mouth of Rock river 150 miles upwards. Theſe are not wrought, the lead uſed in that country being from the banks on the Spaniſh ſide of the Miſſiſippi, oppoſite to Kaſkaſkia.

'A mine of copper was once opened in the county of Amherſt, on the north ſide of James river, and another in the oppoſite county, on the ſouth ſide. However, either from bad management, or the poverty of the

veins, they were diſcontinued. We are told of a rich mine of native copper on the Ouabache, below the upper Wiaw.

'The mines of iron worked at preſent are Callaway's, Roſs's, and Ballendine's, on the ſouth ſide of James river; Old's on the North ſide, in Albemarle; Miller's in Auguſta, and Zane's in Frederick. Theſe two laſt are in the valley between the Blue Ridge and north Mountain. Callaway's, Roſs's, Miller's, and Zane's make about 150 tons of bar iron each, in the year. Roſs's makes alſo about 1600 tons of pig iron annually; Ballendine's 1000; Callaway's, Miller's, and Zane's, about 600 each. Beſides theſe, a forge of Mr. Hunter's, at Frederickſburgh, makes about 300 tons a year of bar iron, from pigs imported from Maryland; and Taylor's forge on Neapſco of Patomak, works in the ſame way, but to what extent I am not informed. The indications of iron in other places are numerous, and diſperſed through all the middle country. The toughneſs of the caſt iron of Roſs's and Zane's furnaces is very remarkable. Pots and other utenſils, caſt thinner than uſual, of this iron, may be ſafely thrown into, or out of the waggons in which they are tranſported. Salt-pans made of the ſame, and no longer wanted for that purpoſe, cannot be broken up, in order to be melted again, unleſs previouſly drilled in many parts.

'In the weſtern country, we are told of iron mines between the Muſkingum and Ohio; of others on Kentucky, between the Cumberland and Barren rivers, between Cumberland and Tenniſſee, on Reedy creek, near the Long Iſland, and on Cheſnut creek, a branch of the Great Kanhaway, near where it croſſes the Carolina line. What are called the iron Banks, on the Miſſiſippi, are believed, by a good judge, to have no iron in them. In general from what is hitherto known of that country, it ſeems to want iron.

'Conſiderable quantities of black lead are taken occaſionally for uſe from Winterham, in the county of Amelia. I am not able, however, to give a particular ſtate of the mine. There is no work eſtabliſhed at it, thoſe who want, going and procuring it for themſelves.

'The country on James river, from 15 to 20 miles above Richmond, and for ſeveral miles northward and ſouthward, is replete with mineral coal of a very excellent quality. Being in the hands of many proprietors, pits have been opened, and before the interruption of our commerce, were worked to an extent equal to the demand.

'In the weſtern country coal is known to be in ſo many places, as to have induced an opinion that the whole tract between the Laurel Mountain, Miſſiſippi, and Ohio, yields coal. It is alſo known in many places on the north ſide of the Ohio. The coal at Pittſburg is of a very ſuperior quality. A bed of it at that place has been on fire ſince the year 1765. Another coal-hill on the Pike Run of Monongahela has been on fire ten years: yet it has burnt away about 20 yards only.

'I have known one inſtance of an emerald found in this country. Amethyſts have been frequent, and chryſtals common; yet not in ſuch numbers any of them as to be worth ſeeking.

'There is very good marble, and in very great abundance, on James river, at the mouth of Rockfiſh. The ſamples I have ſeen, were ſome of them of a white as pure as one might expect to find on the ſurface of the earth:

earth: but moſt of them are variegated with red, blue, and purple. None of it has been ever worked. It forms a very large precipice, which hangs over a navigable part of the river. It is ſaid there is marble at Kentucky.

'But one vein of lime-ſtone is known below the Blue Ridge. Its firſt appearance, in our country, is in Prince William, two miles below the Pignut Ridge of mountains; thence it paſſes on nearly parallel with that, and croſſes the Rivanna about five miles below it, where it is called the Southweſt Ridge. It then croſſes Hardware, above the mouth of Hudſon's creek, James river at the mouth of Rockfiſh, at the marble quarry before ſpoken of, probably runs up that river to where it appears again at Roſs's iron-works, and ſo paſſes off ſouth-weſtwardly by Flat creek of Otter river. It is never more than 100 yards wide. From the Blue Ridge weſtwardly the whole country ſeems to be founded on a rock of lime-ſtone, beſides infinite quantities on the ſurface, both looſe and fixed. This is cut into beds, which range, as the mountains and ſea-coaſt do, from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, the lamina of each bed declining from the horizon towards a parelleliſm with the axis of the earth. Being ſtruck with this obſervation, I made, with a quadrant, a great number of trials on the angles of their declination, and found them to vary from 22° to 60°, but avaraging all my trials, the reſult was within one-third of a degree of the elevation of the pole or latitude of the place, and much the greateſt part of them taken ſeparately were little different from that: by which it appears, that theſe lamina are, in the main, parallel with the axis of the earth. In ſome inſtances, indeed, I found them perpendicular, and even reclining the other way: but theſe were extremely rare, and always attended with ſigns of convulſion, or other circumſtances of ſingularity, which admitted a poſſibility of removal from their original poſition. Theſe trials were made between Madiſon's cave and the Patomak. We hear of lime-ſtone on the Miſſiſippi and Ohio, and in all the mountainous country between the eaſtern and weſtern waters, not on the mountains themſelves, but occupying the valleys between them.

'Near the weſtern foot of the North Mountains are immenſe bodies of *Schiſt*, containing impreſſion of ſhells in a variety of forms. I have received petrified ſhells of very different kinds from the firſt ſources of the Kentucky, which bear no reſemblance to any I have ever ſeen on the tide-waters. It is ſaid that ſhells are found in the Andes, in South-America, 15,000 feet above the level of the ocean.

Medicinal Springs.] 'There are ſeveral medicinal ſprings, ſome of which are indubitably efficacious, while others ſeem to owe their reputation as much to fancy, and change of air and regimen, as to their real virtues. None of them having undergone a chymical analyſis in ſkilful hands, nor been ſo far the ſubject of obſervation as to have produced a reduction into claſſes of the diſorders which they relieve, it is in my power to give little more than an enumeration of them.

'The moſt efficacious of theſe are two ſprings in Auguſta, near the firſt ſources of James river, where it is called Jackſon's river. They riſe near the foot of the ridge of mountains generally called the Warm Spring mountain, but in the maps Jackſon's mountains. The one is diſtinguiſhed by the name of the Warm Spring, and the other of the Hot

Spring. The Warm Spring iſſues with a very bold ſtream, ſufficient to work a griſt-mill, and to keep the waters of its baſon, which is 30 feet in diameter, at the vital warmth, viz. 96° of Farenheit's thermometer. The matter with which theſe waters is allied is very volatile; its ſmell indicates it to be ſulphureous, as alſo does the circumſtance of turning ſilver black. They relieve rheumatiſms. Other complaints alſo of very different natures have been removed or leſſened by them. It rains here four or five days in every week.

'The *Hot Spring* is about ſix miles from the Warm, is much ſmaller, and has been ſo hot as to have boiled an egg. Some believe its degree of heat to be leſſened, It raiſes the mercury in Farenheit's thermometer to 112 degrees, which is fever heat. It ſometimes relieves where the Warm Spring fails. A fountain of common water, iſſuing within a few inches of its margin, gives it a ſingular appearance. Comparing the temperature of theſe with that of the hot ſprings of Kamſchatka, of which Krachininikow gives an account, the difference is very great, the latter raiſing the mercury to 200°, which is within 12° of boiling water. Theſe ſprings are very much reſorted to in ſpite of a total want of accommodation for the ſick. Their waters are ſtrongeſt in the hotteſt months, which occaſions their being viſited in July and Auguſt principally.

'The ſweet ſprings are in the county of Botetourt, at the eaſtern foot of the Allegany, about 42 miles from the warm ſprings. They are ſtill leſs known. Having been found to relieve caſes in which the others had been ineffectually tried, it is probable their compoſition is different. They are different alſo in their temperature, being as cold as common water: which is not mentioned, however, as a proof of a diſtinct impregnation. This is among the firſt ſources of James river.

'On Patomak river, in Berkeley county, about the North mountain, are medicinal ſprings, much more frequented than thoſe of Auguſta. Their powers, however, are leſs, the water weakly mineralized, and ſcarcely warm. They are more viſited, becauſe ſituated in a fertile, plentiful, and populous country, better provided with accommodations, always ſafe from the Indians, and neareſt to the more populous ſtates.

'In Louiſa county, on the head waters of the South Anna branch of York river, are ſprings of ſome medicinal virtue. They are not much uſed, however. There is a weak chalybeate at Richmond; and many others in various parts of the country, which are of too little worth, or too little note to be enumerated after thoſe before-mentioned.

'We are told of a Sulphur Spring on Howard's creek of Green Briar, and another at Boonſborough on Kentucky.

'In the low grounds of the Great Kanhaway, 7 miles above the mouth of Elk River, and 67 above that of the Kanhaway itſelf, is a hole in the earth of the capacity of 30 or 40 gallons, from which iſſues conſtantly a bituminous vapour in ſo ſtrong a current, as to give to the ſand about its orifice the motion which it has in a boiling ſpring. On preſenting a lighted candle or torch within 18 inches of the hole, it flames up in a column of 18 inches diameter, and four or five feet in height, which ſometimes burns out within 20 minutes, and at other times has been known to continue three days, and then has been left ſtill burning. The flame is unſteady, of the denſity of that of burning ſpirits, and ſmells like

like burning pit coal. Water ſometimes collects in the baſon, which is remarkably cold, and is kept in ebullition by the vapour iſſuing through it. If the vapour be fired in that ſtate, the water ſoon becomes ſo warm that the hand cannot bear it, and evaporates wholly in a ſhort time. This, with the circumjacent lands, is the property of his Excellency General Waſhington and of General Lewis.

There is a ſimilar one on Sandy river, the flame of which is a column of about 12 inches diameter, and 3 feet high. General Clark, who informs me of it, kindled the vapour, ſtaid about an hour, and left it burning.

'The mention of uncommon ſprings leads me to that of Syphon fountains. There is one of theſe near the interſection of the lord Fairfax's boundary with the North mountain, not far from Brock's gap, on the ſtream of which is a griſt-mill, which grinds two buſhels of grain at every flood of the ſpring. Another near the Cow-paſture river, a mile and a half below its confluence with the Bull-paſture river, and 16 or 17 miles from the Hot-Springs, which intermits one in every twelve hours. One alſo near the mouth of the North Holſton.

After theſe may be mentioned the Natural Well, on the lands of a Mr. Lewis in Frederick county. It is ſomewhat larger than a common well: the water riſes in it as near the ſurface of the earth as in the neighbouring artificial wells, and is of a depth as yet unknown. It is ſaid there is a current in it tending ſenſibly downwards. If this be true, it probably feeds ſome fountain, of which it is the natural reſervoir, diſtinguiſhed from others, like that of Madiſon's cave, by being acceſſible. It is uſed with a bucket and windlaſs as an ordinary well.

Population.

Population.] ‘ The following table ſhews the number of perſons imported for the eſtabliſhment of our colony in its infant ſtate, and the cenſus of inhabitants at different periods, extracted from our hiſtorians and public records, as particularly as I have had opportunities and leiſure to examine them. Succeſſive lines in the ſame year, ſhew ſucceſſive periods of time in that year. I have ſtated the cenſus in two different columns, the whole inhabitants having been ſometimes numbered, and ſometimes the tythes only. This term, with us, includes the free males above 16 years of age, and ſlaves above that age of both ſexes.

TABLE.

Year	Settlers imported.	Cenſus of Inhabitants.	Years	Settlers imported.	Cenſus of Inhabitants.	Cenſus of Tythes.
1607	100		1618		600	
		40	1619	1216		
	120		1621	1300		
1608		130	1622		3800	
	70				2500	
1609		490	1628		3000	
	16		1632			2000
		60	1644			4822
1610	150		1645			5000
		200	1652			7000
1611	3 ſhip loads		1654			7209
	300		1700			22,000
1612	80		1748			82,000
1617		400	1759			105,000
1618	200		1772			153,000
	40		1782		567,614	

‘ A further examination of our records would render this hiſtory of our population much more ſatisfactory and perfect, by furniſhing a greater

unmber

number of intermediate terms. Theſe however which are here ſtated will enable us to calculate, with a conſiderable degree of preciſion, the rate at which we have increaſed. During the infancy of the colony, while numbers were ſmall, wars, importations, and other accidental circumſtances, render the progreſſion fluctuating and irregular. By the year 1654. however, it becomes tolerably uniform, importations having in a great meaſure ceaſed from the diſſolution of the company, and the inhabitants become too numerous to be ſenſibly affected by Indian wars. Beginning at that period, therefore, we find that from thence to the year 1772, our tythes had increaſed form 7209 to 153,000. The whole term being of 118 years, yields a duplication once in every 27¼ years. The intermediate enumerations taken in 1700, 1748, and 1759, furniſh proofs of the uniformity of this progreſſion. Should this rate of increaſe continue, we ſhall have between ſix and ſeven millions of inhabitants within 95 years. If we ſuppoſe our country to be bounded, at ſome future day, by the meridian of the mouth of the Great Kanhaway, (within which it has been before conjectured are 64,491 ſquare miles) there will then be 100 inhabitants for every ſquare mile, which is nearly the ſtate of population in the Britiſh iſlands.

'Here I will beg leave to propoſe a doubt. The preſent deſire of America is to produce rapid population by as great importations of foreigners as poſſible. But is this founded in good policy? The advantage propoſed is the multiplication of numbers. Now let us ſuppoſe (for example only) that in this ſtate, we could double our numbers in one year by the importation of foreigners; and this is a greater acceſſion than the moſt ſanguine advocate for emigration has a right to expect. Then I ſay, beginning with a double ſtock, we ſhall attain any given degree of population only 27 years and 3 months ſooner, than if we proceed on our ſingle ſtock. If we propoſe 4,500,000 as a competent population for this ſtate, we ſhould be 54½ years attaining it, could we at once double our numbers; and 81¾ years, if we rely on natural propagation, as may be ſeen by the following table,

TABLE.

	Proceeding on our preſent ſtock.	Proceeding on a double ſtock.
1781	567,614	1,135,228
1808¼	1,135,228	2,270,456
1835½	2,270,456	4,540,912
1862¾	4,540,912	

In the firſt column are ſtated periods of 27¼ years; in the ſecond are our numbers, at each period, as they will be if we proceed on our actual ſtock; and in the third are what they would be, at the ſame periods, were we to ſet out from the double of our preſent ſtock. I have taken the term of 4,500,000 inhabitants for example's ſake only. Yet I am perſuaded it is a greater number than the country ſpoken of, conſidering how much inarable land it contains, can clothe and feed without a material

rial change in the quality of their diet. But are there no inconveniencies to be thrown into the ſcale againſt the advantage expected from a multiplication of numbers by the importation of foreigners? It is for the happineſs of thoſe united in ſociety to harmonize as much as poſſible in matters which they muſt of neceſſity tranſact together. Civil government being the ſole objects of forming ſocieties, its adminiſtration muſt be conducted by common conſent. Every ſpecies of government has its ſpecific principles. Ours perhaps are more peculiar than thoſe of any other in the univerſe. It is a compoſition of the freeſt principles of the Engliſh conſtitution, with others derived from natural right and natural reaſon. To theſe nothing can be more oppoſed than the maxims of abſolute monarchies. Yet, from ſuch, we are to expect the greateſt number of emigrants. They will bring with them the principles of the governments they leave, imbibed in their early youth; or, if able to throw them off, it will be in exchange for an unbounded licentiouſneſs, paſſing, as is uſual, from one extreme to another. It would be a miracle were they to ſtop preciſely at the point of temperate liberty. Theſe principles, with their language, they will tranſmit to their children. In proportion to their numbers, they will ſhare with us the legiſlation. They will infuſe into it their ſpirit, warp and bias its direction, and render it a heterogeneous, incoherent, diſtracted maſs.

'I may appeal to experience, during the preſent conteſt, for a verification of thoſe conjectures. But, if they be not certain in event, are they not poſſible, are they not probable? Is it not ſafer to wait with patience 27 years and three months longer, for the attainment of any degree of population deſired, or expected? May not our government be more homogeneous, more peaceable, more durable? Suppoſe 20 millions of republican Americans thrown all of a ſudden into France, what would be the condition of that kingdom? If it would be more torbulent, leſs happy, leſs ſtrong, we may believe that the addition of half a million of foreigners to our preſent numbers would produce a ſimilar effect here. If they come of themſelves, they are entitled to all the rights of citizenſhip: But I doubt the expediency of inviting them by extraordinary encouragements. I mean not that theſe doubts ſhould be extended to the importation of uſeful artificers. The policy of that meaſure depends on very different conſiderations. Spare no expence in obtaining them. They will after a while go to the plough and the hoe; but, in the mean time, they will teach us ſomething we do not know. It is not ſo in agriculture. The indifferent ſtate of that among us does not proceed from a want of knowledge merely; it is from our having ſuch quantities of land to waſte as we pleaſe. In Europe the object is to make the moſt of their land, labour being abundant; here it is to make the moſt of our labour, land being abundant.

'It will be proper to explain how the numbers for the year 1782 have been obtained; and it was not from a perfect cenſus of the inhabitants. It will at the ſame time develope the proportion between the free inhabitants and ſlaves. The following return of taxable articles for that year was given in.

Free

Free males aboves 21 years of age - -	53,289
Slaves of all ages and ſexes - -	211,698
Not diſtinguiſhed in the returns, but ſaid to be titheable ſlaves - - -	23,766
Horſes - - - - -	195,439
Cattle - - - - -	609,734
Wheels of riding carriages - -	5,126
Taverns - - - -	191

[c] There were no returns from the 8 counties of Lincoln, Jefferſon, Fayette, Monongalia, Yohogania, Ohio, Northampton, and York. To find the number of ſlaves which would have been returned inſtead of the 23,766 titheables, we muſt mention that ſome obſervations on a former cenſus had given reaſon to believe that the numbers above and below 16 years of age were equal. The double of this number, therefore, to wit, 47,532, muſt be added to 211,698, which will give us 259,230 ſlaves of all ages and ſexes. To find the number of free inhabitants, we muſt repeat the obſervation, that thoſe above and below 16 are nearly equal. But as the number 53,289 omits the males between 16 and 21, we muſt ſupply them from conjecture. On a former experiment it had appeared that about one-third of our militia, that is, of the males between 16 and 50, were unmarried. Knowing how early marriage takes place here, we ſhall not be far wrong in ſuppoſing that the unmarried part of our militia are thoſe between 16 and 21. If there be young men who do not marry till after 21, there are as many who marry before that age. But as the men above 50 were not included in the militia, we will ſuppoſe the unmarried, or thoſe between 16 and 21, to be one-fourth of the whole number above 16, then we have the following calculation:

Free males above 21 years of age -	53,289
Free males between 16 and 21 - -	17,763
Free males under 16 - - -	71,052
Free females of all ages - -	142, 104
Free inhabitants of all ages - -	284,208
Slaves of all ages - - -	259,230
Inhabitants, excluſive of the 8 counties from which were no returns - -	543,438

In theſe 8 counties in the years 1779 and 1780 were 3,161 militia. Say then,

Free males above the age of 16 - -	3,161
Ditto under 16 - - - - -	3,161
Free females - - - - -	6,322
Free inhabitants in theſe 8 counties -	12,644

To find the number of ſlaves, ſay, as 284,208 to 259,230, ſo is 12,644 to 11,532. Adding the third of theſe numbers to the firſt, and the fourth to the ſecond, we have,

Free

Free inhabitants - - - - -	296,852
Slaves - - - - - - -	270,762
Inhabitants of every age, ſex and condition -	567,614

'But 296,852, the number of free inhabitants, are to 270,762, the number of ſlaves nearly as 11 to 10. Under the mild treatment our ſlaves experience, and their wholeſome, though coarſe, food, this blot in our country increaſes as faſt, or faſter, than the whites. During the regal government, we had at one time obtained a law, which impoſed ſuch a duty on the importation of ſlaves, as amounted nearly to a prohibition, when one inconſiderate aſſembly, placed under a peculiarity of circumſtance, repealed the law. This repeal met a joyful ſanction from the then ſovereign, and no devices, no expedients, which could ever after be attempted by ſubſequent aſſemblies, and they ſeldom met without attempting them, could ſucceed in getting the royal aſſent to a renewal of the duty. In the very firſt ſeſſion held under the republican government, the aſſembly paſſed a law for the perpetual prohibition of the importation of ſlaves. This will in ſome meaſure ſtop the increaſe of this great political and moral evil, while the minds of our citizens may be ripening for a complete emancipation of human nature.'

Climate.] 'In an extenſive country, it will be expected that the climate is not the ſame in all its parts. It is remarkable that, proceeding on the ſame parallel of latitude weſtwardly, the climate becomes colder in like manner as when you proceed northwardly. This continues to be the caſe till you attain the ſummit of the Allegany, which is the higheſt land between the ocean and the Miſſiſippi. From thence, deſcending in the ſame latitude of the Miſſiſippi, the change reverſes; and, if we may believe travellers, it becomes warmer there than it is in the ſame latitude on the ſea ſide. Their teſtimony is ſtrengthened by the vegetables and animals which ſubſiſt and multiply there naturally, and do not on our ſea coaſt. Thus catalpas grow ſpontaneouſly on the Miſſiſippi, as far as the latitude of 37°, and reeds as far as 38°. Parroquets even winter on the Sioto, in the 39th degree of latitude. In the ſummer of 1779, when the thermometer was at 90°, at Monticello, and 96° at Williamſburgh, it was 110° at Kaſkaſkia. Perhaps the mountain, which overhangs this village on the north ſide, may, by its reflection, have contributed ſomewhat to produce this heat.'

Militia.] ‘ The following is a ſtate of the militia, taken from returns of 1780 and 1781, except in thoſe counties marked with an aſterik, the returns from which are ſomewhat older.

TABLE.

Situation.	Counties.	Militia.
Weſtward of the Allegany. 4458.	Lincoln	600
	Jefferſon	300
	Fayette	156
	Ohio.	
	Monongalia	*1000
	Waſhington	*829
	Montgomery	1071
	Green-briar	502
Between the Allegany and Blue Ridge. 7673.	Hampſhire	930
	Berkley	*1100
	Frederick	1142
	Shendando	*925
	Rockingham	875
	Auguſta	1375
	Rockbridge	*625
	Botetourt	*700
Between the Blue Ridge and Tide waters. 18,828.	Loudoun	1746
	Fauquier	1078
	Culpeper	1513
	Spotſylvania	480
	Orange	*600
	Louiſa	603
	Goochland	*550
	Fluvanna	*296
	Albemarle	873
	Amherſt	896
	Buckingham	*625
	Bedford	1300
	Henry	1004
	Pittſylvania	*725
	Halifax	*1139
	Charlotte	613
	Pr. Edward	589
	Cumberland	408
	Powhatan	330
	Amelia	*1125
	Lunenburg	677
	Mecklenburg	1100
	Brunſwick	559

Situation.	Counties.	Militia.
On the Tide Waters and in that Parallel. 19,012. Between James river and Carolina. 6979.	Greeneſville	500
	Dinwiddie	*750
	Cheſterfield	655
	Prince George	382
	Surry	380
	Suſſex	*700
	Southampton	874
	Iſle of Wight	*600
	Nanſemond	*644
	Norfolk	*880
	Princeſs Anne	*594
Between James and York rivers. 3069.	Henrico	619
	Hanover	796
	New Kent	*418
	Charles City	286
	James City	235
	Williamſburg	129
	York	*244
	Warwick	*100
	Elizabeth City	182
Between York and Rappahanoc. 3269.	Caroline	805
	King William	436
	King and Queen	500
	Eſſex	468
	Middleſex	*210
	Glouceſter	850
Between Rappahanoc and Patowmak. 4137.	Fairfax	652
	Prince William	614
	Stafford	*500
	King George	483
	Richmond	412
	Weſtmoreland	544
	Northumberland	630
	Lancaſter	302
Eaſt ſhore 1638	Accomac	*1208
	Northampton	*430
Whole Militia of the State		49,971

‘ Every

'Every able-bodied freeman, between the ages of 16 and 50, is enrolled in the militia. Thoſe of every county are formed into companies, and theſe again into one or more battalions, according to the numbers in the county. They are commanded by colonels, and other ſubordinate officers, as in the regular ſervice. In every county is a county-lieutenant who commands the whole militia in his county, but ranks only as a colonel in the field. We have no general officers always exiſting. Theſe are appointed occaſionally, when an invaſion or inſurrection happens, and their commiſſion determines with the occaſion. The governor is head of the military as well as civil power. The law requirs every militia-man to provide himſelf with the arms uſual in the regular ſervice. But this injunction was always indifferently complied with, and the arms they had have been ſo frequently called for to arm the regulars, that in the lower parts of the country they are entirely diſarmed. In the middle country a fourth or fifth part of them may have ſuch firelocks, as they had provided to deſtroy the noxious animals which infect their farms; and on the weſtern ſide of the Blue Ridge they are generally armed with rifles.'

Civil Diviſions.] 'The counties have already been enumerated. They are 74 in number, of very unequal ſize and population. Of theſe 35 are on the tide waters, or in that parallel; 23 are in the midlands, between the tide waters and Blue Ridge of mountains; 8 between the Blue Ridge and Allegany; and 8 weſtward of the Allegany.

'The ſtate, by another diviſion, is formed into pariſhes, many of which are commenſurate with counties: but ſometimes a county comprehends more than one pariſh, and ſometimes a pariſh more than one county. This diviſion had relation to the religion of the ſtate, a parſon of the Anglican church, with a fixed ſalary, having been heretofore eſtabliſhed in each pariſh. The care of the poor was another object of the parochial diviſion.

'We have no townſhips. Our country being much interſected with navigable waters, and trade brought generally to our doors, inſtead of our being obliged to go in queſt of it, has probably been one of the cauſes why we have no towns of any conſequence. Williamſburgh, which, till the year 1780, was the ſeat of our government, never contained above 1800 inhabitants; and Norfolk, the moſt populous town we ever had, contained but 6000. Our towns, but more properly our villages, or hamlets, are as follows:

'On *James River* and its waters, Norfolk, Portſmouth, Hampton, Suffolk, Smithfield, Williamſburg, Peterſburg, Richmond, the ſeat of our government, Mancheſter, Charlotteſville, New-London.

'On *York River* and its waters, York, Newcaſtle, Hanover.

'On *Pappahannock*, Urbanna, Port Royal, Frederickſburg, Falmouth.

'On *Patomack* and its waters, Dumfries, Colcheſter, Alexandria, Winchester, Staunton.

'There are other places at which, like ſome of the foregoing, the *laws* have ſaid, there ſhall be towns; but *nature* has ſaid, there ſhall not; and they remain unworthy of enumeration. *Norfolk* will probably be the emporium for all the trade of the Cheſapeek bay and its waters; and a canal of 8 or 10 miles will bring to it all that of Albemarle ſound and its waters. Secondary to this place, are the towns at the head of the tide-waters,

waters, to wit, Peterſburg on Appamattox, Richmond on James River, Newcaſtle on York River, Alexandria on Patomak, and Baltimore on the Patapſco. From theſe the diſtribution will be to ſubordinate ſituations of the country. Accidental circumſtances, however, may controul the indications of nature, and in no inſtances do they do it more frequently than in the riſe and fall of towns.'

To the foregoing general account, we add the following more paticular deſcriptions.

ALEXANDRIA ſtands on the ſouth bank of Patomak river. Its ſituation is elevated and pleaſant. The ſoil is clay, and the water ſo bad, that the inhabitants are obliged to ſend nearly a mile for that which is drinkable. The original ſettlers, anticipating its future growth and importance, laid out the ſtreets upon the plan of Philadelphia. It contains upwards of 300 houſes, many of which are handſomely built. This town, upon the opening of the navigation of Patomak river, will probably be one of the moſt thriving commercial places on the continent.

MOUNT VERNON, the celebrated ſeat of GENERAL WASHINGTON, is pleaſantly ſituated on the Virginia bank of the river Patomak, where it is nearly two miles wide, and is about 280 miles from the ſea. It is 9 miles below Alexandria, and 4 above the beautiful ſeat of the late Col. Fairfax, called Bellevoir. The area of the mount is 200 feet above the ſurface of the river, and, after furniſhing a lawn of five acres in front, and about the ſame in rear of the buildings, falls off rather abruptly on thoſe two quarters. On the north end it ſubſides gradually into extenſive paſture-grounds; while on the ſouth it ſlopes more ſteeply, in a ſhorter diſtance, and terminates with the coach-houſe, ſtables vineyard, and nurſeries. On either wing is a thick grove of different, flowering foreſt trees. Parallel with them, on the land ſide, are two ſpecious gardens, into which one is led by two ſerpentine gravel-walks, planted with weeping willows and ſhady ſhrubs. The *Manſion-Houſe* itſelf (though much embelliſhed by, yet not perfectly ſatisfactory to the chaſte taſte of the preſent poſſeſſor) appears venerable and convenient. The ſuperb banquetting room has been finiſhed ſince he returned home from the army. A lofty portico, 96 feet in length, ſuported by eight pillars, has a pleaſing effect when viewed from the water; and the *tout enſemble*, the whole aſſemblage, of the green-houſe, ſchool-houſe, offices, and ſervants halls, when ſeen from the land ſide, bears a reſemblance to a rural village—eſpecially as the lands on that ſide are laid out ſomewhat in the form of Engliſh gardens, in meadows and graſs grounds, ornamented with little copſes, circular clumps, and ſingle trees. A ſmall park on the margin of the river, where the Engliſh fallow-deer, and the American wild deer are ſeen through the thickets alternately with the veſſels as they are ſailing along, add a romantic and picturesque appearance to the whole ſcenery. On the oppoſite ſide of a ſmall creek to the northward, an extenſive plain, exhibiting corn-fields and cattle grazing, affords in ſummer a luxurious landſcape to the eye; while the blended verdure of woodlands and cultivated deciivities on the Maryland ſhore variegates the proſpect in a charming manner. Such are the philoſophic ſhades to which the late Commander in Chief of the American Armies has retired from the tumultuous ſcenes of a buſy world.

FREDE-

FREDERICKSBURGH is situated on the south side of Rappahannok river, 110 miles from its mouth, and contains about 200 houses, principally on one street, which runs nearly parallel with the river.

RICHMOND, the present seat of government, stands on the north side of James river, just at the foot of the falls, and contains about 300 houses; part of which are built upon the margin of the river, convenient for business; the rest are upon a hill which overlooks the lower part of the town, and commands an extensive prospect of the river and adjacent country. The new houses are well built. A large and elegant state-house or capitol has lately been erected on the hill. The lower part of the town is divided by a creek, over which is a bridge, that for Virginia, is elegant. A handsome and expensive bridge, between 3 and 400 yards in length, constructed on boats, has lately been thrown across James river at the foot of the falls, by Col. John Mayo, a wealthy and respectable planter, whose seat is about a mile from Richmond. This bridge connects Richmond with Manchester; and as the passengers pay toll, it produces a handsome revenue to Col. Mayo, who is the sole proprietor.

The falls, above the bridge, are 7 miles in length. A cannal is cutting on the north side of the river, which is to terminate in a bason of about two acres, in the town of Richmond. From this bason to the wharfs in the river, will be a land carriage of about 400 yards. This canal is to be cut by a company, who have calculated the expence at 30,000 pounds, Virginia money. This they have divided into 500 shares of 60 pounds each. The opening of this canal promises the addition of much wealth to Richmond.

PETERSBURG, 25 miles southward of Richmond, stands on the south side of Appamatox river, and contains nearly 300 houses, in two divisions; one is upon a clay, cold soil, and is very dirty—the other upon a plain of sand or loam. There is no regularity, and very little elegance in Petersburg. It is merely a place of business. The Free Masons have a hall tolerably elegant; and the seat of the Bowling family is pleasant and well built. It is very unhealthy. About 2200 hogsheads of tabacco are inspected here annually. Like Richmond, Williamsburg, Alexandria, and Norfolk, it is a corporation; and what is singular, Petersburg city comprehends a part of three counties. The celebrated Indian queen, Pocahonta, from whom descended the Randolph and Bowling families, formerly resided at this place.

WILLIAMSBURG is 60 miles eastward of Richmond, situated between two creeks; one falling into James, the other into York river. The distance of each landing place is about a mile from the town, which, with the disadvantage of not being able to bring up large vessels, and want of enterprize in the inhabitants, are the reasons why it never flourished. It consists of about 200 houses, going fast to decay, and not more than 900 or 1000 souls. It is regularly laid out in parallel streets, with a square in the center, through which runs the principal street, E. and W. about a mile in length, and more than 100 feet wide. At the ends of this street are two public buildings, the college and capitol. Besides these there is an Episcopal church, a prison, a hospital for lunatics, and the palace; all of them extremely indifferent. In the capitol is a large marble statue, in the likeness of Narbone Berkley, lord Botetourt, a man distinguished

diſtinguiſhed for his love of piety, literature and good government, and formerly governor of Virginia. It was erected at the expence of the ſtate, ſince the year 1771. The capitol is little better than in ruins, and this elegant ſtatue is expoſed to the rudeneſs of negroes and boys, and is ſhamefully defaced.

Every thing in Williamſburg appears dull, forſaken, and melancholy—no trade—no amuſements, but the infamous one of gaming—no induſtry, and very little appearance of religion. The unproſperous ſtate of the college, but principally the removal of the ſeat of government, have contributed much to the decline of this city.

YORK-TOWN, 13 miles eaſtward from Williamſburg, is a place of about 100 houſes, ſituated on the ſouth ſide of York river. It was rendered famous by the capture of Lord Cornwallis and his army, on the 19th of October, 1781, by the united forces of France and America.

Colleges, Academies, &c.] 'The college of William and Mary is the only public ſeminary of learning in this ſtate. It was founded in the time of king William and queen Mary, who granted to it 20,000 acres of land, and a penny a pound duty on certain tobaccoes exported from Virginia and Maryland, which had been levied by the ſtatute of 25 Car. 2. The aſſembly alſo gave it, by temporary laws, a duty on liquors imported, and ſkins and furs exported. From theſe reſources it received upwards of £.3000 *communibus annis*. The buildings are of brick, ſufficient for an indifferent accommodation of perhaps 100 ſtudents. By its charter it was to be under the government of 20 viſitors, who were to be its legiſlators, and to have a preſident and ſix profeſſors, who were incorporated. It was allowed a repreſentative in the general aſſembly. Under this charter, a profeſſorſhip of the Greek and Latin languages, a profeſſorſhip of mathematics, one of moral philoſophy, and two of divinity, were eſtabliſhed. To theſe were annexed, for a ſixth profeſſorſhip, a conſiderable donation by a Mr. Boyle, of England, for the inſtruction of the Indians, and their converſion to chriſtianity. This was called the profeſſorſhip of Brafferton, from an eſtate of that name in England, purchaſed with the monies given. The admiſſion of the learners of Latin and Greek filled the college with children. This rendering it diſagreeable and degrading to young gentlemen already prepared for entering on the ſciences, they were diſcouraged from reſorting to it, and thus the ſchools for mathematics and moral philoſophy, which might have been of ſome ſervice, became of very little. The revenues too were exhauſted in accommodating thoſe who came only to acquire the rudiments of ſcience. After the preſent revolution, the viſitors, having no power to change thoſe circumſtances in the conſtitution of the college which were fixed by the charter, and being therefore confined in the number of profeſſorſhips, undertook to change the objects of the profeſſorſhips. They excluded the two ſchools for divinity, and that for the Greek and Latin languages, and ſubſtituted others; ſo that at preſent they ſtand thus:—A profeſſorſhip for Law and Police—Anatomy and Medicine—Natural philoſophy and Mathematics—Moral Philoſophy, the Law of Nature and Nations, the Fine Arts—Modern Languages—For the Brafferton.

'And it is propoſed, ſo ſoon as the legiſlature ſhall have leiſure to take up this ſubject, to deſire authority from them to increaſe the number of profeſſorſhips,

profeſſorſhips, as well for the purpoſe of ſubdividing thoſe already inſtituted, as of adding others for other branches of ſcience. To the profeſſorſhips uſually eſtabliſhed in the univerſities of Europe, it would ſeem proper to add one for the ancient languages and literature of the North, on account of their connection with our own languages, laws, cuſtoms, and hiſtory. The purpoſes of the Brafferton inſtitution would be better anſwered by maintaining a perpetual miſſion among the Indians tribes, the object of which, beſides inſtructing them in the principles of chriſtianity, as the founder requires, ſhould be to collect their traditions, laws, cuſtoms, languages, and other circumſtances which might lead to a diſcovery of their relation with one another, or deſcent from other nations. When theſe objects are accompliſhed with one tribe, the miſſionary might paſs on to another.'

The college edifice is a huge misſhapen pile, 'which, but that it has a roof, would be taken for a brick-kiln.' In 1787, there were about 30 young gentlemen members of this college, a large proportion of which were law-ſtudents.

There are a number of flouriſhing academies in Virginia—one in Prince Edward county—one at Alexandria—one at Norfolk—one at Hanover, and others in other places.

Since the declaration of independence, the laws of Virginia have been reviſed by a committee appointed for the purpoſe, who have reported their works to the aſſembly. One object of this reviſal was to diffuſe knowledge more generally through the maſs of the people. The bill for this purpoſe 'propoſes to lay off every county into ſmall diſtricts of five or ſix miles ſquare, called hundreds, and in each of them to eſtabliſh a ſchool for teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic. The tutor to be ſupported by the hundred, and every perſon in it entitled to ſend their children 3 years gratis, and as much longer as they pleaſe, paying for it. Theſe ſchools to be under a viſitor, who is annually to chooſe the boy, of beſt genius in the ſchool, of thoſe whoſe parents are too poor to give them further education, and to ſend him forward to one of the grammar ſchools of which twenty are propoſed to be erected in different parts of the country, for teaching Greek, Latin, geography, and the higher branches of numerical arithmetic. Of the boys thus ſent in any one year, trial is to be made at the grammar ſchools one or two years, and the beſt genius of the whole ſelected, and continued ſix years, and the reſidue diſmiſſed. By this means twenty of the beſt geniuſſes will be raked from the rubbiſh annually, and be inſtructed at the public expence, ſo far as the grammar ſchools go. At the end of ſix years inſtruction, one half are to be diſcontinued (from among whom the grammar ſchools will probably be ſupplied with future maſters); and the other half, who are to be choſen for the ſuperiority of their parts and diſpoſition, are to be ſent and continued three years in the ſtudy of ſuch ſciences as they ſhall chooſe, at William and Mary college, the plan of which is propoſed to be enlaged, as will be hereafter explained, and extended to all the uſeful ſciences. The ultimate reſult of the whole ſcheme of education would be the teaching all the children of the ſtate reading, writing, and common arithmetic: turning out ten annually of ſuperior genius, well taught in Greek, Latin, geography, and the higher branches of arithmetic:

arithmetic: turning out ten others annually, of ſtill ſuperior parts, who, to thoſe branches of learning, ſhall have added ſuch of the ſciences as their genius ſhall have led them to: the furniſhing to the wealthier part of the people convenient ſchools, at which their children may be educated at their own expence.—The general objects of this law are to provide an education adapted to the years, to the capacity, and the condition of every one, and directed to their freedom and happineſs. Specific details were not proper for the law. Theſe muſt be the buſineſs of the viſitors entruſted with its execution. The firſt ſtage of this education being the ſchools of the hundreds, wherein the great maſs of the people will receive their inſtruction, the principal foundations of future order will be laid here. Inſtead therefore of putting the Bible and Teſtament into the hands of the children, at an age when their judgment are not ſufficiently matured for religious enquiries, their memories may here be ſtored with the moſt uſeful facts from Grecian, Roman, European and American hiſtory. The firſt elements of morality too may be inſtilled into their minds; ſuch as, when further developed as their judgments advance in ſtrength, may teach them how to work out their own greateſt happineſs, by ſhewing them that it does not depend on the condition of life in which chance has placed them; but is always the reſult of a good conſcience, good health, occupation, and freedom in all juſt purſuits.—Thoſe whom either the wealth of their parents or the adoption of the ſtate ſhall deſtine to higher degrees of learning, will go on to the grammar ſchools, which conſtitute the next ſtage, there to be inſtructed in the languages. The learning Greek and Latin, I am told, is going into diſuſe in Europe. I know not what their manners and occupations may call for: but it would be very ill-judged in us to follow their example in this inſtance. There is a certain period of life, ſay from eight to fifteen or ſixteen years of age, when the mind, like the body, is not yet firm enough for laborious and cloſe operations. If applied to ſuch, it falls an early victim to premature exertion; exhibiting indeed at firſt, in theſe young and tender ſubjects, the flattering appearance of their being men while they are yet children, but ending in reducing them to be children when they ſhould be men. The memory is then moſt ſuſceptible and tenacious of impreſſions; and the learning of languages being chiefly a work of memory, it ſeems preciſely fitted to the powers of this period, which is long enough too for acquiring the moſt uſeful languages antient and modern. I do not pretend that language is ſcience. It is only an inſtrument for the attainment of ſcience. But that time is not loſt which is employed in providing tools for future operation: more eſpecially as in this caſe the books put into the hands of the youth for this purpoſe may be ſuch as will at the ſame time impreſs their minds with uſeful facts and good principles. If this period be ſuffered to paſs in idleneſs, the mind becomes lethargic and impotent, as would the body it inhabits if unexerciſed during the ſame time. The ſympathy between body and mind during their riſe, progreſs and decline, is too ſtrict and obvious to endanger our being miſled while we reaſon from the one to the other.—As ſoon as they are of ſufficient age, it is ſuppoſed they will be ſent on from the grammar ſchools to the univerſity, which conſtitutes our third and laſt ſtage, there to ſtudy thoſe ſciences which may be adapted to their views.—By that part of our plan which pre-

ſcribes the ſelection of the youths of genius from among the claſſes of the poor, we hope to avail the ſtate of thoſe talents which nature has ſown as liberally among the poor as the rich, but which periſh without uſe, if not ſought for and cultivated.—But of all the views of this law none is more important, none more legitimate, than that of rendering the people the ſafe, as they are the ultimate, guardians of their own liberty. For this purpoſe the reading in the firſt ſtage, where *they* will receive their whole education, is propoſed, as has been ſaid, to be chiefly hiſtorical. Hiſtory by appriſing them of the paſt, will enable them to judge of the future; it will avail them of the experience of other times and other nations; it will qualify them as judges of the actions and deſigns of men; it will enable them to know ambition under every diſguiſe it may aſſume; and knowing it, to defeat its views. In every government on earth is ſome trace of human weakneſs, ſome germ of corruption and degeneracy, which cunning will diſcover, and wickedneſs inſenſibly open, cultivate, and improve. Every government degenerates when truſted to the rulers of the people alone. The people themſelves therefore are its only ſafe depoſitories. And to render even them ſafe, their minds muſt be improved to a certain degree. This indeed is not all that is neceſſary, though it be eſſentially neceſſary. An amendment of our conſtitution muſt here come in aid of the public education. The influence over government muſt be ſhared among all the people. If every individual which compoſes their maſs participates of the ultimate authority, the government will be ſafe; becauſe the corrupting the whole maſs will exceed any private reſources of wealth: and public ones cannot be provided but by levies on the people. In this caſe every man would have to pay his own price. The government of Great-Britain has been corrupted, becauſe but one man in ten has a right to vote for members of parliament. The ſellers of the government therefore get nine-tenths of their price clear. It has been thought that corruption is reſtrained by confining the right of ſuffrage to a few of the wealthier of the people: but it would be more effectually reſtrained by an extenſion of that right to ſuch numbers as would bid defiance to the means of corruption.'

The excellent meaſures for the diffuſion of uſeful knowledge, which the fore-mentioned bill propoſes, have not yet been carried into effect. And it will be happy if the great inequality in the circumſtances of the citizens —the pride, the independence, and the indolence of one claſs—and the poverty and depreſſion of the other, do not prove inſuperable difficulties in the way of their univerſal operation.

Religion.] 'The firſt ſettlers in this country were emigrants from England, of the Engliſh church, juſt at a point of time when it was flushed with complete victory over the religions of all other perſuaſions. Poſſeſſed, as they became, of the powers of making, adminiſtering, and executing the laws, they ſhewed equal intolerance in this country with their Preſbyterian brethern, who had emigrated to the northern government. The poor Quakers were flying from perſecution in England. They caſt their eyes on theſe new countries as aſylums of civil and religious freedom; but they found them free only for the reigning ſect. Several acts of the Virginia aſſembly of 1659, 1662, and 1693. had made it penal in parents to refuſe to have their children baptized; had prohibited the unlawful aſſembling of Quakers; had made it penal for any maſters of a veſ-

ſel

ſel to bring a Quaker into the ſtate; had ordered thoſe already here, and ſuch as ſhould come thereafter, to be impriſoned till they ſhould abjure the country; provided a milder puniſhment for their firſt and ſecond return, but death for their third; had inhibited all perſons from ſuffering their meetings in or near their houſes, entertaining them individually, or diſpoſing of books which ſupported their tenets. If no capital execution took place here, as did in new-England, it was not owing to the moderation of the church, or ſpirit of the legiſlature, as may be inferred from the law itſelf; but to hiſtorical circumſtances which have not been handed down to us. The Anglicans retained full poſſeſſion of the country about a century. Other opinions began then to creep in, and the great care of the government to ſupport their own church, having begotten an equal degree of indolence in its clergy, two-thirds of the people had become diſſenters at the commencement of the preſent revolution. The laws indeed were ſtill oppreſſive on them, but the ſpirit of the one party had ſubſided into moderation, and of the other had riſen to a degree of determination which commanded reſpect.'

The preſent denominations of chriſtians in Virginia are, Preſbyterians, who are the moſt numerous, and inhabit the weſtern parts of the ſtate; Epiſcopalians, who are the moſt antient ſettlers, and occupy the eaſtern and firſt ſettled parts of the ſtate. Intermingled with thoſe are great numbers of Baptiſts and Methodiſts. The proportional numbers of theſe ſeveral denominations have not been aſcertained. The Epiſcopalians, or as Mr. Jefferſon calls them, the 'Angelicans,' have, comparatively, but few miniſters among them; and theſe few, when they preach, which is ſeldom more than once a week, preach to very thin congregations.——The Preſbyterians, in proportion to their numbers, have more miniſters, who preach oftener, and to larger audiences. The Baptiſts and Methodiſts are generally ſupplied by itinerant preachers, who have large and promiſcuous audiences, and preach almoſt every day, and often ſeveral times in a day.

The bulk of theſe religious ſects are of the poorer ſort of people, and many of them are very ignorant, (as is indeed the caſe with the other denominations) but they are generally a moral, well-meaning ſet of people. They exhibit much zeal in their worſhip, which appears to be compoſed of the mingled effuſions of piety, enthuſiaſm, and, ſuperſtition.

Character, Manners, and Cuſtoms.] Virginia has produced ſome of the moſt diſtinguiſhed and influential man that have been active in effecting the two late grand and important revolutions in America. Her political and military character will rank among the firſt in the page of hiſtory. But it is to be obſerved that this character has been obtained for the Virginians by a few eminent men, who have taken the lead in all their public tranſactions, and who, in ſhort, govern Virginia; for the great body of the people do not concern themſelves with politics—ſo that their government, though nominally republican, is, in fact, oligarchal or ariſtocratical.

The Virginians pride themſelves in inheriting the *ancient dominion*, and think that this does, or ought to, entitle them to the firſt rank in the union. Age is indeed honourable, and ought to be reſpected, in proportion to the wiſdom which it diſcovers; but it is often proud and petulant; and, in view of what it has *once* been, claims a rank and reſpect which are

not its due; and this is never more likely to be the cauſe, than when there is a lack of that wiſdom which long experience ought to produce. Whether this is the caſe with Virginia, I will not pretend to determine. It is certain, however, that her northern ſiſters, though willing to yield to her in point of age, believe, not only that ſhe is not ſuperior, but that ſhe is far from being equal to ſome of them, in point of literary, mechanical, nautical, agricultural, and manufactural improvements. A few ſingular inſtances excepted, the Virginians have made very little progreſs in the arts and ſciences. Of their ſkill in architecture, Mr. Jefferſon gives the following account: 'The private buildings are very rarely conſtructed of ſtone or brick; much the greateſt proportion being of ſcantling and boards, plaſtered with lime. It is impoſſible to deviſe things more ugly, uncomfortable, and happily more periſhable. There are two or three plans, on one of which, according to its ſize, moſt of the houſes in the ſtate are built. The pooreſt people build huts of logs, laid horizontally in pens, ſtopping the interſtices with mud. Theſe are warmer in winter, and cooler in ſummer, than the more expenſive conſtructions of ſcantling and plank.—The only public buildings worthy mention are the Capitol, the Palace, the College, and the Hoſpital for Lunatics, all of them in Williamſburg. There are no other public buildings but churches and courthouſes, in which no attempts are made at elegance. Indeed it would not be eaſy to execute ſuch an attempt, as a workman could ſcarcely be found here capable of drawing an order. The genius of architecture ſeems to have ſhed its maledictions over this land. Buildings are often erected, by individuals, of conſiderable expence. To give theſe ſymmetry and taſte would not increaſe their coſt. It would only change the arrangement of the materials, the form and combination of the members. This would often coſt leſs than the burthen of barbarous ornaments with which theſe buildings are ſometimes charged. But the firſt principles of the art are unknown, and there exiſts ſcarcely a model among us ſufficiently chaſte to give an idea of them. Architecture being one of the fine arts, and as ſuch within the department of a profeſſor of the college, according to the new arrangement, perhaps a ſpark may fall on ſome young ſubjects of natural taſte, kindle up their genius, and produce a reformation in this elegant and uſeful art.'

A ſenſible gentleman * who travelled through the middle ſettlements in America, about 30 years ago, has given the Virginians the following character.

'The climate and external appearance of the country conſpire to make them indolent, eaſy, and good-natured; extremely fond of ſociety, and much given to convivial pleaſures. In conſequence of this, they ſeldom ſhow any ſpirit of enterprize, or expoſe themſelves willingly to fatigue. Their authority over their ſlaves renders them vain and imperious, and entire ſtrangers to that elegance of ſentiment, which is ſo peculiarly characteriſtic of refined and poliſhed nations. Their ignorance of mankind and of learning, expoſes them to many errors and prejudices, eſpecially in regard to Indians and Negroes, whom they ſcarcely conſider as of the human ſpecies; ſo that it is almoſt impoſſible, in caſes of vio-

* *The Rev. Andrew Burnaby, Vicar of Greenwich.*

lence,

lence, or even murder, committed upon thoſe unhappy people by any of the planters, to have the delinquents brought to juſtice: for either the grand jury refuſe to find the bill, or the petit jury bring in their verdict, not guilty.

'The diſplay of a character thus conſtituted, will naturally be in acts of extravagance, oſtentation, and a diſregard of œconomy; it is not extraordinary, therefore, that the Virginians out-run their incomes; and that having involved themſeves in difficulties, they are frequently tempted to raiſe money by bills of exchange, which they know will be returned proteſted, with 10 per cent. intereſt.

'The public or political character of the Virginians, correſponds with their private one: They are haughty and jealous of their liberties, impatient of reſtraint, and can ſcarcely bear the thought of being controuled by any ſuperior power. There are but few of them that have a turn for buſineſs, and even thoſe are by no means adroit at it. I have known them upon a very urgent occaſion, vote the relief of a garriſon, without once conſidering whether the thing was practicable, when it was moſt evidently and demonſtrably otherwiſe *. In matters of commerce they are ignorant of the neceſſary principles that muſt prevail between a colony and the mother country; they think it a hardſhip not to have an unlimited trade to every part of the world. They conſider the duties upon their ſtaple as injurous only to themſelves; and it is utterly impoſſible to perſuade them that they affect the conſumer alſo. Upon the whole, however, to do them juſtice, the ſame ſpirit of generoſity prevails here which does in their private character; they never refuſe any neceſſary ſupplies for the ſupport of government when called upon, and are a generous and loyal people.

'The women are, upon the whole, rather handſome, though not to be compared with our fair country-women in England. They have but few advantages, and conſequently are ſeldom accompliſhed; this makes them reſerved, and unequal to any intereſting or refined converſation. They are immoderately fond of dancing, and indeed it is almoſt the only amuſement they partake of: But even in this they diſcover great want

* *The garriſon here alluded to, was that of Fort Loudoun, in the Cherokee country, conſiſting of a lieutenant, and about fifty men. This unfortunate party being beſieged by the Cherokee Indians, and reduced to the laſt extremity, ſent off runners to the governors of Virginia and Carolina, imploring immediate ſuccour; adding that it was impoſſible for them to hold out above twenty days longer. The aſſembly of Virginia, commiſerating their unhappy ſituation, very readily voted a conſiderable ſum for their relief. With this, troops were to be levied; were to rendezvous upon the frontiers 200 miles diſtant from Williamſburg; were afterwards to proceed to the fort 200 miles farther through a wilderneſs, where there was no road, no magazines, no poſts, either to ſhelter the ſick, or cover a retreat in caſe of any diſaſter; ſo that the unfortunate garriſon might as effectually have been ſuccoured from the moon. The author taking notice of theſe difficulties to one of the members, he frankly replied, "Faith, it is true: But we have had an opportunity at leaſt of ſhowing our loyalty." In a few days after arrived the melancholy news, that this unfortunate party was entirely cut off.*

of

of taſte and elegance, and ſeldom appear with that graceſulneſs and eaſe which thoſe movements are ſo calculated to diſplay. Towards the cloſe of an evening, when the company are pretty well tired with country-dances, it is uſual to dance jiggs; a practice originally borrowed, I am informed, from the Negroes. Theſe dances are without any method or regularity: A gentleman and lady ſtand up, and dance about the room, one of them retiring, the other purſuing, then perhaps meeting, in an irregular fantaſtical manner. After ſome time, another lady gets up, and then the firſt lady muſt ſit down, ſhe being as they term it, cut out: The ſecond lady act the ſame part which the firſt did, till ſomebody cuts her out. The gentlemen perform in the ſame manner. The Virginian ladies, excepting their amuſements, and now and then a party of pleaſure into the woods to partake a barbacue, chiefly ſpend their time in ſewing and taking care of their families: They ſeldom read, or endeavour to improve their minds; however, they are in general good houſewives; and though they have not, I think, quite ſo much tenderneſs and ſenſibility as the Engliſh ladies, yet they make as good wives, and as good mothers, as any in the world.' This character was drawn from perſonal obſervation, and, in general, appears, to be juſt.

'The Virginians,' ſays another diſcerning traveller, 'who are rich, are in general ſenſible, polite and hoſpitable, and of an independent ſpirit. The poor are ignorant and abject—and all are of an inquiſitive turn, and in many other reſpects, very much reſemble the people in the eaſtern ſtate. They differ from them, however, in their morals; the former being much addicted to gaming, drinking, ſwearing, horſe-racing, cock-fighting, and moſt kinds of diſſipation. There is a much greater diſparity between the rich and the poor, in Virginia, than in any of the northern ſtates.'

'The young men, another traveller obſerves, generally ſpeaking, are gamblers, cock-fighters, and horſe-jockies. To hear them converſe, you would imagine that the grand point of all ſcience was properly to fix a gaff, and touch, with dexterity, the tail of a cock while in combat. He who won the laſt match, the laſt game, or the laſt horſe-race, aſſumes the airs of a hero or German Potentate. The ingenuity of a Locke, or the diſcoveries of a Newton, are conſidered as infinitely inferior to the accompliſhments of him, who knows when to ſhoulder a blind cock, or ſtart a fleet horſe.' A ſpirit for literary enquiries, if not altogether confined to a few, is, among the body of the people, evidently ſubordinate to a ſpirit of gaming and barbarous ſports. At almoſt every tavern or ordinary, on the public road, there is a billiard-table, a back-gammon table, cards, and other implements for various games. To thoſe public houſes, the gambling gentry in the neighbourhood reſort to *kill time*, which hangs heavily upon them; and at this buſineſs they are extremely expert, having been accuſtomed to it from their earlieſt youth. The paſſion for cock-fighting, a diverſion not only inhumanly barbarous, but infinitely beneath the dignity of a man of ſenſe, is ſo predominant, that they even advertiſe their matches in the public news-papers *. This

* *A traveller through Virginia obſerves, 'Three or four matches were advertiſed in the public prints at Williamſburg; and I was witneſs of* five *in the courſe of my travels from that to Port Royal.'*

diſſipation

diſſipation of manners is the fruit of indolence and luxury, which are the fruits of the African ſlavery.

Conſtitution, Courts and Laws.] 'The executive powers are lodged in the hands of a governor, choſen annually, and incapable of acting more than three years in ſeven. He is aſſiſted by a council of eight members. The judiciary power are divided among ſeveral courts, as will be hereafter explained. Legiſlation is exerciſed by two houſes of aſſembly, the one called the houſe of Delegates, compoſed of two members from each county, choſen annually by the citizens poſſeſſing an eſtate for life in 100 acres of uninhabited land, or 25 acres with a houſe on it, or in a houſe or lot in ſome town: the other called the Senate, conſiſting of 24 members, choſen quadrennially by the ſame electors, who for this purpoſe are diſtributed into 24 diſtricts. The concurrence of both houſes is neceſſary to the paſſage of a law. They have the appointment of the governor and council, the judges of the ſuperior courts, auditors, attorney-general, treaſurer, regiſter of the land office, and delegates to Congreſs. As the diſmemberment of the ſtate had never had its confirmation, but, on the contrary, had always been the ſubject of proteſtation and complaint, that it might never be in our own power to raiſe ſcruples on that ſubject, or to diſturb the harmony of our new confederacy, the grants to Maryland, Pennſylvania, and the two Carolinas, were ratified.

'This conſtitution was formed when we were new and unexperienced in the ſcience of government. It was the firſt, too, which was formed in the whole United States. No wonder then that time and trial have diſcovered very capital defects in it.

1. 'The majority of the men in the ſtate, who pay and fight for its ſupport, are unrepreſented in the legiſlature, the roll of freeholders intitled to vote, not including generally the half of thoſe on the roll of the militia, or of the tax-gatherers.

2. 'Among thoſe who ſhare the repreſentation, the ſhares are very unequal. Thus the county of Warwick, with only 100 fighting men, has an equal repreſentation with the county of Loudon, which has 1746. So that every man in Warwick has as much influence in the government as 17 men in Loudon. But leſt it ſhould be thought that an equal interſperſion of ſmall among large counties, through the whole ſtate, may prevent any danger of injury to particular parts of it, we will divide it into diſtricts, and ſhew the proportions of land, of fighting men, and of repreſentation in each.

	Square miles.	Fighting men.	Delegates.	Senators.
Between the ſea-coaſt and falls of the rivers	11,205	19,012	71	12
Between the falls of the rivers and the Blue Ridge of mountains	18,759	18,828	46	8
Between the Blue Ridge and the Allegany	11,911	7,673	16	2
Between the Allegany and Ohio	79,650	4,458	16	2
Total	121,525	49,971	149	24

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'An inspection of this table will supply the place of commentaries on it. It will appear at once that nineteen thousand men, living below the falls of the rivers, possess half the senate, and want four members only of possessing a majority of the house of delegates; a want more than supplied by the vicinity of their situation to the seat of government, and of course the greater degree of convenience and punctuality with which their members may and will attend in the legislature. These nineteen thousand, therefore, living in one part of the country, give law to upwards of thirty thousand, living in another, and appoint all their chief officers, executive and judiciary. From the difference of their situation and circumstances, their interests will often be very different.

'There are three superior courts,' to which appeals lie from the courts below, 'to wit, the high court of chancery, the general court, and court of admiralty. The first and second of these receive appeals from the county courts, and also have original jurisdiction where the subject of controversy is of the value of ten pounds sterling, or where it concerns the title or bounds of land. The jurisdiction of the admiralty is original altogether. The high court of chancery is composed of three judges, the general court of five, and the court of admiralty of three. The two first hold their sessions at Richmond at stated times, the chancery twice in the year and the general court twice for business civil and criminal, and twice more for criminal only. The court of admiralty sits at Williamsburg whenever a controversy arises.

'There is one supreme court, called the Court of Appeals, composed of the judges of the three superior courts, assembling twice a year at stated times at Richmond. This court receives appeals in all civil cases from each of the superior courts, and determines them finally. But it has no original jurisdiction.

'If a controversy arise between two foreigners of a nation in alliance with the United States, it is decided by the consul for their state, or, if both parties chuse it, by the ordinary courts of justice. If one of the parties only be such a foreigner, it is triable before the courts of justice of the country. But if it shall have been instituted in a county court, the foreigner may remove it into the general court, or court of chancery, who are to determine it at their first sessions, as they must also do if it be originally commenced before them. In cases of life and death, such foreigners have a right to be tried by a jury, the one half foreigners, the other natives.

'All public accounts are settled with a board of auditors, consisting of three members, appointed by the general assembly, any two of whom may act. But an individual, dissatisfied with the determination of that board, may carry his case into the proper superior court.'

In 1661, the laws of England were expressly adopted by an act of the assembly of Virginia, except so far as 'a difference of condition' rendered them inapplicable. To these were added a number of acts of assembly, passed during the monarchy, and ordinances of convention, and acts of assembly since the establishment of the republic. The following variations from the British model are worthy of notice.

'Debtors unable to pay their debts, and making faithful delivery of their whole effects, are released from their confinement, and their persons for

for ever discharged from restraint for such previous debts: But any property they may afterwards acquire will be subject to their creditors.

'The poor unable to support themselves, are maintained by an assessment on the titheable persons in their parish.

'A foreigner of any nation, not in open war with us, becomes naturalized by removing to the state to reside, and taking an oath of fidelity; and thereupon acquires every right of a native citizen.

'Slaves pass by descent and dower as lands do.

'Slaves, as well as lands, were entailable during the monarchy: But, by an act of the first republican assembly, all donees in tail, present and further, were vested with the absolute dominion of the entailed subject.

'Gaming debts are made void, and monies actually paid to discharge such debts (if they exceeded 40 shillings) may be recovered by the payer within three months, or by any other person afterwards.

'Tobacco, flour, beef, pork, tar, pitch and turpentine, must be inspected by persons publicly appointed, before they can be exported.'

In 1785, the assembly enacted, that no man should be compelled to support any religious worship, place or minister whatsoever, nor be enforced, restrained molested or burdened in his body or goods, nor otherwise suffer on account of his religious opinions or belief; but that all men should be free to profess, and by argument to maintain, their opinions in matters of religion; and that the same should in no wise diminish, enlarge or affect their civil capacities.

In October 1786, an act was passed by the assembly, prohibiting the importation of slaves into the commonwealth, upon penalty of the forfeiture of the sum of £.1000 for every slave. And every slave imported contrary to the true intent and meaning of this act, becomes free.

Manufactures and Commerce.] 'We never had an interior trade of any importance. Our exterior commerce has suffered very much from the beginning of the present contest. During this time we have manufactured within our families the most necessary articles of cloathing. Those of cotton will bear some comparison with the same kinds of manufacture in Europe; but those of wool, flax and hemp are very course, unsightly and unpleasant: And such is our attachment to agriculture, and such our preference for foreign manufactures, that be it wise or unwise, our people will certainly return as soon as they can to the raising raw materials, and exchanging them for finer manufactures than they are able to execute themselves.

Before

'Before the preſent war we exported, *communibus annis*, according to the beſt information I can get, nearly as follows:

TABLE.

ARTICLES.	Quantity	Price in dollars.	Am. in dollars.
Tobacco	55,000 hhds. of 100 lb.	at 30d. per hhd.	1,650,000
Wheat	8000,000 buſhels	at $\frac{5}{6}$ d. per buſh.	666,666$\frac{2}{3}$
Indian corn	6000,000 buſhels	at $\frac{1}{3}$ d. per buſh.	200,000
Shipping	— — —	— —	100,000
Maſts, planks, ſkantling, ſhingles, ſtaves	— — —	— —	66,666$\frac{2}{3}$
Tar, pitch, turpentine	30,000 barrels	at 1$\frac{1}{3}$ d. per bar.	40,000
Peltry, viz. ſkins of deer, beavers, otters, muſkrats, raccoons, foxes	180 hhds. of 600 lb.	at $\frac{5}{12}$ d. per lb.	42,000
Pork	4,000 barrels	at 10 per barrel	40,000
Flax-ſeed, hemp, cotton	— — —	— —	8,000
Pit-coal, pig-iron	— — —	— —	6,666$\frac{2}{3}$
Peas	5,000 buſhels	at $\frac{2}{3}$ d. per buſh.	3,333$\frac{1}{3}$
Beef	1,000 barrels.	at 3$\frac{1}{3}$ d. per bar.	3,333$\frac{1}{3}$
Sturgeon, white ſhad, herring	— — —	— —	3,333$\frac{1}{3}$
Brandy from peaches and apples, and whiſky	— — —	— —	1,666$\frac{2}{3}$
Horſes	— — —	— —	1,666$\frac{2}{3}$
			2,833,333$\frac{1}{3}$d.

This Sum is equal to £.850,000 Virginia money, 607,142 guineas.

'In the year 1758, we exported ſeventy thouſand hogſheads of tobacco, which was the greateſt quantity ever produced in this country in one year. But its culture was faſt declining at the commencement of this war, and that of wheat taking its place: And it muſt continue to decline on the return of peace. I ſuſpect that the change in the temperature of our climate has become ſenſible to that plant, which, to be good, requires an extraordinary degree of heat. But it requires ſtill more indiſpenſably an uncommon fertility of ſoil: And the price which it commands at market will not enable the planter to produce this manure. Was the ſupply ſtill to depend on Virginia and Maryland alone, as its culture becomes more difficult, the price would riſe, ſo as to enable the planter to ſurmount thoſe difficulties and to live. But the weſtern country on the Miſſiſippi, and the midlands of Georgia, having freſh and fertile lands in abundance, and a hotter ſun, will be able to underſell theſe two ſtates, and will oblige them to abandon the raiſing tobacco altogether. And a happy obligation for them it will be. It is a culture productive of infinite wretchedneſs. Thoſe employed in it are in a continual ſtate of exertion beyond the powers of nature to ſupport. Little food of any kind is raiſed by them; ſo that the men and animals on theſe farms are badly fed, and the earth is rapidly impoveriſhed. The cultivation of wheat is the reverſe in every circumſtance. Beſides cloathing the earth with herbage, and preſerving its fertility, it feeds the laborious plentifully, requires from them only a moderate toil, except in the ſeaſon of harveſt, raiſes great numbers of animals for food and ſervice, and diffuſes plenty and happineſs among the whole. We find it eaſier to make an hundred buſhels of wheat, than a thouſand weight of tobacco, and they are worth more when made. The weavil indeed is a formidable obſtacle to the cultivation of this grain with us. But principles are already known which muſt lead to a remedy. Thus a certain degree of heat, to wit, that of the common air in ſummer, is neceſſary to hatch the egg. If ſubterranean granaries, or others, therefore, can be contrived below that temperature, the evil will be cured by cold. A degree of heat beyond that which hatches the egg, we know will kill it. But in aiming at this we eaſily run into that which produces putrefaction. To produce putrefaction, however, three agents are requiſite, heat, moiſture, and the external air. If the abſence of any one of theſe be ſecured, the other two may ſafely be admitted. Heat is the one we want. Moiſture then, or external air, muſt be excluded. The former has been done by expoſing the grain in kilns to the action of fire, which produces heat, and extracts moiſture at the ſame time: The latter, by putting the grain into hogſheads, covering it with a coat of lime, and heading it up. In this ſituation its bulk produces a heat ſufficient to kill the egg; the moiſture is ſufficient to remain indeed, but the external air is excluded. A nicer operation yet has been attempted; that is, to produce an intermediate temperature of heat between that which kills the egg, and that which produces putrefaction. The threſhing the grain as ſoon as it is cut, and laying it in its chaff in large heaps, has been found very nearly to hit this temperature, though not perfectly, nor always. The heap generates heat ſufficient to kill moſt of the eggs, whilſt the chaff commonly reſtrains it from riſing into putrefaction. But all thoſe methods abridge too much the quantity

which

which the farmer can manage, and enable other countries to underſell him which are not infeſted with this inſect. There is ſtill a deſideratum than to give with us deciſive triumph to this branch of agriculture over that of tobacco. The culture of wheat, by enlarging our paſture, will render an Arabian horſe an article of a very conſiderable profit. Experience has ſhewn that ours in the particular climate of America where he may be raiſed without degeneracy. Southwardly the heat of the ſun occaſions a deficiency of paſture, and northwardly the winters are too cold for the ſhort and fine hair, the particular ſenſibility and conſtitution of that race. Animals tranſplanted into unfriendly climates, either change their nature and acquire new fences againſt the new difficulties in which they are placed, or they multiply poorly and become extinct. A good foundation is laid for their propagation here by our poſſeſſing already great numbers of horſes of that blood, and by a decided taſte and preference for them eſtabliſhed among the people. Their patience of heat without injury, their ſuperior wind, fit them better in this and the more ſouthern climates even for the drudgeries of the plough and waggon. Northwardly they will become an object only to perſons of taſte and fortune, for the ſaddle and light carriges. To theſe and for theſe uſes, their fleetneſs and beauty will recommend them.—Beſides theſe there will be other valuable ſubſtitutes when the cultivation of tobacco ſhall be diſcontinued, ſuch as cotton in the eaſtern parts of the ſtate, and hemp and flax in the weſtern.

'It is not eaſy to ſay what are the articles either of neceſſity, comfort, or luxury, which we cannot raiſe, and which we therefore ſhall be under a neceſſity of importing from abroad, as every thing hardier than the olive, and as hardy as the fig, may be raiſed here in the open air. Sugar, coffee, and tea, indeed, are not between theſe limits; and habit having placed them among the neceſſaries of life with the wealthy part of our citizens, as long as theſe habits remain, we muſt go for them to thoſe countries which are able to furniſh them.'

Public Revenue and Expence.] 'The nominal amount of theſe varying conſtantly and rapidly, with the conſtant and rapid deprecation of our paper money, it becomes impracticable to ſay what they are. We find ourſelves cheated in every eſſay by the depreciation intervening between the declaration of the tax and its equal receipt. It will therefore be more ſatisfactory to conſider what our income may be when we ſhall find means of collecting what the people may ſpare. I ſhall eſtimate the whole taxable property of this ſtate at an hundred millions of dollars, or thirty millions of pounds our money. One per cent. on this, compared with any thing we ever yet paid, would be deemed a very heavy tax. Yet I think that thoſe who manage well, and uſe reaſonable œconomy, could pay one and a half per cent. and maintain their houſhold comfortably in the mean time, without aliening any part of their principal, and that the people would ſubmit to this willingly for the purpoſe of ſupporting the preſent conteſt. We may ſay then, that we could raiſe, and ought to raiſe, from one million to one million and a half of dollars annually, and that is from three hundred to four hundred and fifty thouſand pounds, Virginia money.

'Of

Of our expences it is equally difficult to give an exact ſtate, and for the ſame reaſon. They are moſtly ſtated in paper money, which, varying continually, the legiſlature endeavours at every ſeſſion, by new corrections, to adapt the nominial ſums to the value it is wiſhed they ſhould bear. I will ſtate them therefore in real coin, at the point at which they endeavour to keep them.

	Dollars.
The annual expences of the general aſſembly are about	20,000
The governor	3,333⅓
The council of ſtate	10,666⅔
Their clerks	1,166⅔
Eleven judges	11,000
The clerk of the chancery	666⅔
The attorney-general	1,000
Three auditors and a ſolicitor	5,333⅓
Their clerks	2,000
The treaſurer	2,000
His clerks	2,000
The keeker of the public jail	1,000
The public printer	1,666⅔
Clerks of the inferior courts	43,333⅓
Public levy: this is chiefly for the expences of criminal juſtice	40,000
County levy, for bridges, court-houſes, priſons, &c.	40,000
Members of Congreſs	7,000
Quota of the Federal civil liſt, ſuppoſed $\frac{1}{6}$ of about 78,000 dollars	13,000
Expences of collection, 6 per cent. on the above	12,310
The clergy receive only voluntary contributions: ſuppoſe them on an averge $\frac{1}{8}$ of a dollar a tythe on 200,000 tythes	25,000
Contingencies, to make round numbers not far from truth	7,523⅓
	250,000

Dollars, or 53,571 guineas. This eſtimate is excluſive of the military expence. That varies with the force actually employed, and in time of peace will probably be little or nothing. It is excluſive alſo of the public debts, which are growing while I am writing, and cannot therefore be now fixed. So it is of the maintenance of the poor, which being merely a matter of charity, cannot be deemed expended in the adminiſtration of government. And if we ſtrike out the 25,000 dollars for the ſervices of the clergy, which neither makes part of that adminiſtration, more than what is paid to phyſicians or lawyers, and being voluntary, is either much or nothing as every one pleaſes, it leaves 225,000 dollars, equal to 48,208 guineas, the real coſt of the apparatus of government with us. This divided among the actual inhabitants of our country, comes to about two-fifths of a dollar, 21d. ſterling, or 42 ſols, the price which each pays annually for the protection of the reſidue of his property, that of his perſon, and the other advantages of a free government. The public revenues of Great-Britain, divided in like manner on its inhabitants, would be

be ſixteen times greater. Deducting even the double of the expences of government, as before eſtimated, from the million and a half of dollars which we before ſuppoſed might be annually paid without diſtreſs, we may conclude that this ſtate can contribute one million of dollars annually towards ſupporting the federal army, paying the federal debt, building a federal navy, or opening roads, clearing rivers, forming ſafe ports, and other uſeful works.'

Hiſtory.] We have already given a brief hiſtorical account of the firſt ſettlement of Virginia, till the arrival of Lord Delaware in 1610. His arrival with a freſh ſupply of ſettlers and proviſions revived the drooping ſpirits of the former company, and gave permanency and reſpectability to the ſettlement.

In April, 1613, Mr. John Rolfe, a worthy young gentleman, was married to *Pocahontas*, the daughter of *Powhatan*, the famous Indian chief. This connexion, which was very agreeable both to the Engliſh and Indians, was the foundation of a friendly and advantageous commerce between them.

In 1616, Mr. Rolf, with his wife Pacahontas, viſited England, where ſhe was treated with that attention and reſpect which ſhe had merited by her important ſervices to the colony in Virginia. She died the year following at Graveſend, in the 22d year of her age, juſt as ſhe was about to embark for America. She had embraced the Chriſtian religion; and in her life and death evidenced the ſincerity of her profeſſion. She left a little ſon, who, having received his education in England, came over to Virginia, where he lived and died in affluence and honour, leaving behind him an only daughter. Her deſcendents are among the moſt reſpectable families in Virginia.

Tomocomo, a ſenſible Indian, brother in law to Pocahontas, accompanied her to England; and was directed by Powhatan to bring him an exact account of the numbers and ſtrength of the Engliſh. For this purpoſe, when he arrived at Plymouth, he took a long ſtick, intending to cut a notch in it for every perſon he ſhould ſee. This he ſoon found impracticable, and threw away his ſtick. On his return, being aſked by Powhatan, how many people there were, he is ſaid to have replied, 'Count the ſtars in the ſky, the leaves on the trees, and the ſands on the ſea ſhore; for ſuch is the number of people in England.'

'In purſuance of the authorities given to the company by their ſeveral charties, and more eſpecially of that part in the charter of 1609, which authoriſed them to eſtabliſh a form of government, they, on the 24th of July, 1621, by charter under their common ſeal, declared, That from thence forward there ſhould be two ſupreme councils in Virginia, the one to be called the council of ſtate, to be placed and diſplaced by the treaſurer, council in England, and company, from time to time, whoſe office was to be that of aſſiſting and adviſing the governor; the other to be called the general aſſembly, to be convened by the governor once, yearly, or oftener, which was to conſiſt of the council of ſtate, and two burgeſſes out of every town, hundred, or plantation, to be reſpectively choſen by the inhabitants. In this all matters were to be decided by the greater part of the votes preſent, reſerving to the governor a negative voice; and they were to have power to treat, conſult, and conclude all emergent

emergent occaſions concerning the public weal, and to make laws for the behoof and government of the colony, imitating and following the laws and policy of England as nearly as might be: Providing that theſe laws ſhould have no force till ratified in a general quarter court of the company in England, and returned under their common ſeal, and declaring that, after the government of the colony ſhould be well framed and ſettled, no orders of the council in England ſhould bind the colony, unleſs ratified in the ſaid general aſſembly. The king and company quarrelled, and, by a mixture of law and force, the latter were ouſted of all their rights, without retribution, after having expended 100,000l. in eſtabliſhing the colony, without the ſmalleſt aid from government. King James ſuſpended their powers by proclamation of July 15, 1624, and Charles I. took the government into his own hands. Both ſides had their partiſans in the colony: but in truth the people of the colony in general thought themſelves little concerned in the diſpute. There being three parties intereſted in theſe ſeveral charters, what paſſed between the firſt and ſecond it was thought could not effect the third. If the king ſeized on the powers of the company, they only paſſed into other hands, without increaſe or diminution, while the rights of the people remained as they were. But they did not remain ſo long. The northern parts of their country were granted away to the Lords Baltimore and Fairfax, the firſt of theſe obtaining alſo the rights of ſeparate juriſdiction and government. And in 1650, the parliament, conſidering itſelf as ſtanding in the place of their depoſed king, and as having ſucceeded to all his powers, without as well as within the realm, began to aſſume a right over the colonies, paſſing an act for inhibiting their trade with foreign nations. This ſucceſſion to the exerciſe of the kingly authority gave the firſt colour for parliamentary interference with the colonies, and produced that fatal precedent which they continued to follow after they had retired, in other reſpects, within their proper functions. When the colony, therefore, which ſtill maintained its oppoſition to Cromwell and the parliament, was induced, in 1651, to lay down their arms, they previouſly ſecured their moſt eſſential rights, by a ſolemn convention.

'This convention entered into with arms in their hands, they ſuppoſed had ſecured their ancient limits of their country—its free trade—its exemption from taxation, but by their own aſſembly, and excluſion of military force from among them. Yet in every of theſe points was this convention violated by ſubſequent kings and parliaments, and other infractions of their conſtitution, equally dangerous, committed. Their general aſſembly, which was compoſed of the council of ſtate and burgeſſes, ſitting together and deciding by plurality of voices, was ſplit into two houſes, by which the council obtained a ſeparate negative on their laws. Appeals from their ſupreme court, which had been fixed by law in their general aſſembly, where arbitrarily revoked to England, to be there heard before the king and council. Inſtead of 400 miles on the ſea coaſt, they were reduced, in the ſpace of 30 years, to about 100 miles. Their trade with foreigners was totally ſuppreſſed, and, when carried to Great-Britain, was there loaded with impoſts. It is unneceſſary, however, to glean up the ſeveral inſtances of injury, as ſcattered through American and Britiſh hiſtory, and the more eſpecially as, by paſſing on to the acceſſion of the preſent king, we

we ſhall find ſpecimens of them all, aggravated, multiplied, and crouded within a ſmall compaſs of time, ſo as to evince a fixed deſign of conſidering our rights natural, conventional and chartered as mere nullities. The following is an epitome of the firſt fifteen years of his reign, The colonies were taxed internally and externally; their eſſential intereſts ſacrificed to individuals in Great-Britain; their legiſlatures ſuſpended; charters annulled; trials by juries taken away; their perſons ſubjected to tranſportation acroſs the Atlantic, and to trial before foreign judicatories; their ſupplications for redreſs thought beneath anſwer; themſelves publiſhed as cowards in the councils of their mother country and courts of Europe; armed troops ſent among them to enforce ſubmiſſion to theſe violences; and actual hoſtilities commenced againſt them. No alternative was preſented but reſiſtance, or unconditional ſubmiſſion. Between theſe could be no heſitation. They cloſed in the appeal to arms. They declared themſelves independent ſtates. They confederated together into one great republic; thus ſecuring to every ſtate the benefit of an union of their whole force.'

The ſtate of Virginia has taken a leading, active, and influential part in bringing about the late grand revolution in our Federal Government*. This event, however, has unhappily divided the citizens into two parties of nearly equal ſtrength. Though they were united in the opinion, that an alteration in our government was neceſſary, they have not agreed in the plan. While one party warmly eſpouſes the preſent ſyſtem of government the other as violently oppoſes its going into operation without amendments. Their debates run high. What will be their iſſue cannot be predicted.

LIST *of* PRESIDENTS *and* GOVERNORS *of Virginia, from its firſt ſettlement to the year* 1624 †.

Edward Maria Wingfield,	from May,	1607,	to Sept.	1607.
John Ratcliffe,	Sept.	1607,	to July,	1608.
Mat. Scrivener, *Vice-Preſident*,	July,	1608,	to Sept.	1608.
John Smith,	Sept.	1608,	to Sept.	1609.
George Percy, *Governor*,	Sept.	1609,	to May,	1610.
Sir Thomas Gates,	May,	1610,	to June,	1610.
Lord Delaware,	June,	1610,	to March,	1611.
George Percy,	March,	1611,	to May,	1611.
Sir Thomas Dale,	May,	1611,	to Aug.	1611.
Sir Thomas Gates,	Auguſt,	1611,	to	1614.
Sir Thomas Dale,		1614,	to	1616.
George Yeardley,		1616,	to	1617.
Samuel Argall,		1617,	to	1619.
George Yeardley,		1619,	to Nov.	1621.
Sir Francis Wyat,	Nov.	1621,	to	1624.

* *See Hiſtory of the United States, page* 122.

† *Stith brings down the Hiſtory of Virginia no farther than this period. A liſt of the governors ſince has not been received.*

INDIANA,

INDIANA.

INDIANA, ſo called, is a tract of land lying on the Ohio river, in the ſtate of Virginia, ceded to William Trent and twenty two others, Indian traders, by the Shawaneſe, Delaware, and Huron tribes, as a compenſation for the loſſes the former had ſuſtained by the depredations of the latter, in the year 1763. This ceſſion was made in a congreſs of the repreſentatives of the Six nations, at Fort Stanwix, by an indenture, ſigned the 3d of November, 1768, witneſſing, 'That for and in conſideration of £.85,916 10 8, York currency, (the ſame being the amount of the goods ſeized and taken by ſaid Indians from Trent, &c.) they did grant, bargain, ſell, &c. to his majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, for the only uſe of ſaid William Trent, &c. all that tract or parcel of land, beginning at the ſoutherly ſide of the little Kanhaway creek, where it empties itſelf into the river Ohio; and running thence ſouth-eaſt to the Laurel Hill; thence along the Laurel Hill until it ſtrikes the river Monongahela; thence down the ſtream of the ſaid river according to the ſeveral courſes thereof, to the ſouthern boundary line of the province of Pennſylvania; thence weſtwardly along the courſe of the ſaid province boundary line as far as the ſame ſhall extend; thence by the ſame courſe to the river Ohio, and then down the river Ohio to the place of beginning, incluſively.' This indenture was ſigned by ſix Indian chiefs, in preſence of twelve witneſſes.

Since the Indians had an undiſputed title to the above limited territory, either from pre-occupancy or conqueſt; and their right was expreſsly acknowledged by the above deed of ceſſion to the crown, it is very evident that Mr. Trent, in his own right, and as attorney for the traders, hath a good, lawful, and ſufficient title to the land granted by the ſaid deed of conveyance.

This matter was laid before congreſs in the year 1782, and a committee appointed to conſider it, who, in May, reported as follows: 'On the whole, your committee are of opinion, that the purchaſes of Colonel Croghan and the Indian company, were made *bona fide* for a valuable conſideration, according to the then uſage and cuſtoms of purchaſing Indian lands from the Indians, with the knowledge, conſent and approbation of the crown of Great Britain, the then government of New York and Virginia, and therefore do recommend that it be

Reſolved, That if the ſaid lands are finally ceded or adjudged to the United States in point of juriſdiction, that congreſs will confirm to ſuch of the ſaid purchaſers who are, and ſhall be, citizens of the United States, or either of them, their reſpective ſhares and proportions of ſaid lands, making a reaſonable deduction for the value of the quit-rents reſerved by the crown of England.'

KENTUCKY.

[Belonging, at preſent, to the State of Virginia.]

SITUATION and EXTENT.

Miles.		
Length 250	Between	36° 30′ and 39° 30′ North Latitude.
Breadth 200		8° and 15° Weſt Longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north-weſt, by the river Ohio; weſt, by Cumberland river; ſouth, by North Carolina; eaſt, by Sandy river, and a line drawn due ſouth from its ſource, till it ſtrikes the northern boundary of North Carolina.

Civil diviſion.] Kentucky was originally divided into two counties, Lincoln and Jefferſon. It has ſince been ſubdivided into ſeven, which follow:

Counties.	Chief towns.	Counties.	Chief town.
Jefferſon,	LOUISVILLE,	Nelſon	Bardſtown,
Fayette,	LEXINGTON,	Maddiſon,	
Bourbon,		Lincoln,	
Mercer,	Harrodſtown,		

As moſt of theſe counties are very large, it is probable that ſubdiviſions, will continue to be made, as population increaſes.

Rivers.] The river Ohio waſhes the north-weſtern ſide of Kentucky, in its whole extent. Its principal branches, which water this fertile tract of country, are Sandy, Licking, Kentucky, Salt, Green, and Cumberland rivers. Theſe again branch in various directions, into rivulets of different magnitudes, fertilizing the country in all its parts. At the bottoms of theſe water-courſes the lime-ſtone rock, which is common to this country, appears of a greyiſh colour; and where it lies expoſed to the air, in its natural ſtate, it looks like brown free ſtone. On the banks of theſe rivers and rivulets, this ſtone has the appearance of fine marble, being of the ſame texture, and is found in the greateſt plenty.

Sandy, *Liking* and *Kentucky* rivers ride near each other, in the Cumberland Mountains. Of theſe, *Sandy* river only breaks through the mountains. This river conſtitutes a part of the eaſtern boundary of Kentucky.

Liking river runs in a north-weſt direction, upwards of 100 miles, and is about 100 yards broad at its mouth.

Kentucky is a very crooked river, and after running a courſe of more than 200 miles, empties into the Ohio by a mouth of 150 yards broad.

Salt river riſes at four different places near each other. The windings of this river are curious. The four branches, after a circuitous courſe around a fine tract of land, unite; and after running about 15 miles, empty into the Ohio, 20 miles below the falls. Its general courſe is weſtward—its length about 90 miles—and at its mouth is 80 yards wide.

Green river purſues a weſtward courſe upwards of 150 miles, and by a mouth 80 yards wide, falls into the Ohio, 120 miles below the *Rapids*.

Cumberland

Cumberland river interlocks with the northern branch of Kentucky, and rolling round the other arms of Kentucky, among the mountains, in a ſouthern courſe, 100 miles—then in a ſouth-weſtern courſe for above 200 more—than in a ſouthern and ſouth-weſtern courſe for about 250 more, finds the Ohio, 413 miles below the Falls. At Naſhville, this river is 200 yards broad, and at its mouth 300. The river is about half its courſe, paſſes through North Carolina.

Theſe rivers are navigable for boats almoſt to their ſources, without rapids, for the greateſt part of the year. The little rivulets which chequer the country, begin to leſſen in June, and quite diſappear in the months of Auguſt, September, and October. The autumnal rains, however, in November, repleniſh them again. The method of getting a ſupply of water in the dry ſeaſon is by ſinking wells, which are eaſily-dug, and afford excellent water. The want of water in autumn, is the great complaint. Mills that may be ſupplied with water, eight months in a year, may be erected in a thouſand different places. Wind mills and horſe mills may ſupply the other four months.

The banks of the rivers are generally high and compoſed of lime-ſtone. After heavy rains the water in the rivers riſes from 10 to 30 feet.

Springs.] There are five noted ſalt ſprings or licks in this country; viz. The higher and lower Blue Springs, on Licking river, from ſome of which, it is ſaid, iſſue ſtreams of briniſh water—the Big Bone lick, Drennon's licks, and Bullet's lick, at Saltſburgh. The laſt of theſe licks, though in low order, has ſupplied this country and Cumberland with ſalt at 20 ſhillings the buſhel. Virginia currency; and ſome is exported to the Illinois country. The method of procuring water from theſe licks, is by ſinking wells from 30 to 40 feet deep. The water drawn from theſe wells is more ſtrongly impregnated with ſalt than the water from the ſea. A ſtraight road, 40 feet wide, has been cut from Saltſburg to Louiſville, 24 miles.

Face of the country, ſoil and produce.] This whole country, as far as has yet been diſcovered, lies upon a bed of lime-ſtone, which in general lies about ſix feet below the ſurface, except in the vallies, where the ſoil is much thinner. A tract of about 20 miles wide, along the banks of the Ohio, is hilly, broken land, interſperſed with many fertile ſpots. The reſt of the country is agreeably uneven, gently aſcending and deſcending at no great diſtances. The angles of aſcent are from 8 to 24 degrees, and ſometimes more. The vallies in common are very narrow, and the ſoil in them is very thin, and of an inferior quality: and that along the aſcending ground is frequently not much better; for where you ſee a tree blown up, you find the roots clinging to the upper parts of the rock. The ſoil, on theſe agreeable aſcents, (for they cannot be called hills) is ſufficiently deep, as is evident from the ſize of the trees. The ſoil is either black or tinged with a lighter or deeper vermillion, or is of the colour of dark aſhes. In many places there are appearances of potters clay, and coal in abundance. The country promiſes to be well ſupplied with wholeſome, well-taſted water. In Nelſon county, north-weſt of Rolling fork, a branch of Salt river, is a tract of about 40 miles ſquare, moſtly barren, interſperſed with plains and ſtripes of good land, which are advantageous ſituations for raiſing cattle, as the neighbouring barrens

are covered with graſs, and afford good paſtures. The lands eaſt of Nolin creek, a branch of Green river, are in general of an inferior quality; but the banks of Green river afford many deſirable ſituations.

Towards the head waters of Kentucky river, which interlock with the water of Cumberland and Sandy rivers, and the whole country eaſtward and ſouth-eaſtward as far as the Holſtein river, is broken, mountainous, and almoſt impenetrable; and from the deſcription given by hunters, it is much doubted whether it will ever be practicable to make a paſſable road from Kentucky acroſs to Wincheſter, in Virginia, on the eaſt ſide of the mountains, which, on a ſtraight line, is not perhaps more than 400 miles, and the way now travelled is 600.

No country will admit of being thicker ſettled with farmers, who confine themſelves to agriculture, than this. But large ſtocks of cattle, except in the neighbourhood of barrens, cannot be raiſed.

Elkhorn river, a branch of the Kentucky, from the ſouth-eaſt, waters a country fine beyond deſcription. Indeed, the country eaſt and ſouth of this including the head waters of Licking river, Hickman's and Jeſſamine creeks, and the remarkable bend in Kentucky river, may be called an extenſive garden. The ſoil is deep and black, and the natural growth, large walnuts, honey and black locuſt, poplar, elm, oak, hickory, ſugar tree, &c. Grape vines, running to the tops of the trees; and the ſurface covered with clover, blue graſs, and wild rye. On this fertile tract, and on the Licking river, and the head waters of Salt river, are the bulk of the ſettlements in this country. The ſoil within a mile or two of Kentucky river is generally of the third and fourth rates; and as you advance towards the Ohio, the land is poor and hilly.

Dick's river runs through a great body of firſt rate land, abounding with cane, and affords many excellent mill ſeats. Salt river has good lands on its head waters except that they are low and unhealthy, but for 25 miles before it empties into the Ohio, the land on each ſide is level and poor, and abounds with ponds.

Cumberland river, ſo much of it as paſſes through Kentucky, traverſes, ſome few parts excepted, a hilly poor country.

Green river overflows its banks a conſiderable way up, at the ſeaſon when the Ohio ſwells, which is in April. This ſwell in Green river, occaſions ſeveral of its large branches to overflow, and cover the low grounds with water, leaves and vegetable ſubſtances, which in ſummer become noxious and unhealthy. Its banks are fine and fertile. There is a great body of good land near the falls or rapids in the Ohio, called Bare graſs; but the climate is rendered unhealthy by ponds of ſtagnant water, which may be eaſily drained.

This country in general is well timbered. Of the natural growth which is peculiar to this country, we may reckon the ſugar, the coffee, the papaw, and the cucumber tree. The two laſt are a ſoft wood, and bear a fruit of the ſhape and ſize of a cucumber. The coffee tree reſembles the black oak, and bears a pod, which encloſes good coffee. Beſides theſe there is the honey locuſt, black mulberry, wild cherry, of a large ſize, buckeye, an exceedingly ſoft wood—the magnolia, which bears a beautiful bloſſom of a rich and exquiſite fragrance. Such is the variety and beauty of the flowering ſhrubs and plants which grow ſpontaneouſly in this

this country, that in the proper ſeaſon the wilderneſs appears in bloſſom.

The accounts of the fertility of the ſoil in this country have, in ſome inſtances, exceeded belief; and probably have been exaggerated.—That ſome parts of Kentucky, particularly the high grounds, are remarkably good, all accounts agree. The lands of the firſt rate are too rich for wheat, and will produce 50 and 60, and in ſome inſtances, it is affirmed, 100 buſhels of good corn, an acre. In common, the land will produce 30 buſhels of wheat or rye an acre. Barley, oats, cotton, flax, hemp, and vegetables of all kinds common in this climate, yield abundantly. The old Virginia planters ſay, that if the climate does not prove too moiſt, few ſoils known will yield more and better tobacco.

In the rivers are plenty of buffalo and catfiſh of uncommon ſize, ſalmon, mullet, rock, perch, garfiſh, eel, ſuckers, ſunfiſh, &c.—Trout, ſhad and herrings have not been caught in the weſtern-waters.

Swamps are rare in Kentucky; and of courſe the reptiles which they produce, ſuch as ſnakes, frogs, &c. are not numerous. The honey-bee may be called a domeſtic inſect, as it is not found but in civilized countries. This is confirmed by a ſaying which is ſaid to be common among the Indians, when they ſee a ſwarm of bees in the woods, 'Well, brothers, it is time for us to decamp, for the white people are coming.'

The quadrupeds, except the buffalo, are the ſame as in Virginia and Carolinas.

Climate.] Healthy and delightful, ſome few places in the neighbourhood of ponds and low grounds excepted. The inhabitants do not experience the extreme of heats and cold. Snow ſeldom falls deep, or lies long.—The winter, which begins about Chriſtmas, is never longer than three months, and is commonly but two, and is ſo mild as that cattle can ſubſiſt without fodder.

Chief Towns.] LEXINGTON, which ſtands on the head water of Elkhorn river, is reckoned the capital of Kentucky. Here the courts are held, and buſineſs regularly conducted. In 1786, it contained about 100 houſes and ſeveral ſtores, with a good aſſortment of dry goods. It muſt have greatly increaſed ſince.

LEESTOWN is weſt of Lexington on the eaſtern bank of Kentucky river. It is regularly laid out, and is flouriſhing. The banks of Kentucky river are remarkably high, in ſome places 3 and 400 feet, compoſed generally of ſtupendous perpendicular rocks; the conſequence is, there are few croſſing places. The beſt is at Leeſtown, which is a circumſtance that muſt contribute much to its increaſe.

Louiſville ſtands on the Kentucky ſide of the Ohio, oppoſite Clarkſville, at the falls, in a fertile country, and promiſes to be a place of great trade. Its unhealthineſs, owing to ſtagnated waters back of the town, has conſiderably retarded its growth. Beſides theſe there is Bardſtown, in Nelſon county, and Harrodſberg, in Mercer county, both on the head waters of Salt river; Danville, Boonſborough and Granville are alſo increaſing towns.

Population and Character.] It is impoſſible to aſcertain, with any degree of accuracy, the preſent number of inhabitants; owing to the numerous

rous acceſſions which are made almoſt every month. In 1783, in the county of Lincoln * only, there were, on the militia rolls, 3570 men, chiefly emigrants from the lower parts of Virginia. In 1784, the number of inhabitants were reckoned at upwards of 30,000. From the accounts of their aſtoniſhing increaſe ſince, we may now ſafely eſtimate them at 100,000. It is aſſerted that at leaſt 20,000 migrated here in the year 1787. Theſe people, collected from different ſtates, of different manners, cuſtoms, religions, and political ſentiments, have not been long enough together to form a uniform and diſtinguiſhing character. Among the ſettlers there are many gentlemen of abilities, and many genteel families, from ſeveral of the ſtates, who give dignity and reſpectability to the ſettlement. They are in general, more orderly, perhaps, than any people who have ſettled a new country.

Religion.] The Baptiſts are the moſt numerous religious ſect in Kentucky. In 1787 they had 16 churches eſtabliſhed, beſides ſeveral congregations where churches were not conſtituted. Theſe were ſupplied with upwards of 30 miniſters or teachers. There are ſeveral large congregations of Preſbyterians, and ſome few of other denominations.

Government.] The ſame as Virginia. But they expect to be admitted into the union as an independent ſtate, in a convenient time after the new government is put in operation. The inconveniencies to which they are neceſſarily ſubjected, from their connection with Virginia, are great. Theſe inconveniencies the legiſlature of Virginia have conſidered; and, in their ſeſſion of 1786, paſſed an act, providing, on their part, for the erection of the diſtrict of Kentucky into an independent ſtate. In no part of the United States is juſtice adminiſtered with more popriety and diſpatch.

Literature and Improvements.] The legiſlature of Virginia have made proviſion for a college in Kentucky, and have endowed it with very conſiderable landed funds. The Rev. John Todd has given a very handſome library for its uſe. Schools are eſtabliſhed in the ſeveral towns, and, in general, regularly and handſomely ſupported. They have a printing office, and publiſh a weekly Gazette. They have erected a paper-mill, an oil mill, fulling mills, ſaw mills, and a great number of valuable griſt mills. Their ſalt works are more than ſufficient to ſupply all the inhabitants, at a low price. They have conſiderable quantities of ſugar from the ſugar trees. Labourers, particularly tradeſmen, are exceedingly wanted here. No tradeſman will work for leſs than fifty per cent. advance upon the Philadelphia price.

Curioſities.] The banks, or rather precipices, of Kentucky and Dick's rivers, are to be reckoned among the natural curioſities of this country. Here the aſtoniſhed eye beholds 3 or 400 feet of ſolid perpendicular rock, in ſome parts of the lime-ſtone kind, and in others of fine white marble curiouſly chequered with ſtrata of aſtoniſhing regularity. Theſe rivers have the appearance of deep, artificial canals. Their banks are level, and covered with red-cedar groves.

Caves have been diſcovered in this country, of ſeveral miles in length, under a fine lime-ſtone rock, ſupported by curious arches and pillars.

* *This county, it is to be remembered, has ſince been divided.*

Springs

Springs that emit ſulphurous matter have been found in ſeveral parts of the country. One is near a ſalt ſpring, in the neighbourhood of Boonſborough. There are three ſprings or ponds of bitumen near Green river, which do not form a ſtream, but empty themſelves into a common reſervoir, and when uſed in lamps, anſwer all the purpoſes of the beſt oil. Copperas and alum are among the minerals of Kentucky.——Near Lexington are found curious ſepulchres full of human ſkeletons. I have been told that a man, in or near Lexington, having dug 5 or 6 feet below the ſurface of the ground, came to a large flat ſtone, under which was a well of common depth, regularly and artificially ſtoned.

Hiſtory.] *The firſt white man we have certain accounts of, who diſcovered this province, was one James M'Bride, who in company with ſome others, in the year 1754, paſſing down the Ohio in canoes, landed at the mouth of Kentucky river, and there marked a tree, with the firſt letters of his name, and the date, which remains to this day. Theſe men reconnoitred the country, and returned home with the pleaſing news of their diſcovery of the beſt tract of land in North America, and probably in the world. From this period it remained concealed till about the year 1767, when one John Finley and ſome others, trading with the Indians, fortunately travelled over the fertile region, now called Kentucky, then but known to the Indians, by the name of the Dark and Bloody Grounds, and ſometimes the Middle Ground. This country greatly engaged Mr. Finley's attention. Some time after diſputes ariſing between the Indians traders, he was obliged to decamp; and returned to his place of reſidence in North-Carolina, where he communicated his diſcovery to Col. Daniel Boon, and a few more, who conceiving it to be an intereſting object, agreed in the year 1769 to undertake a journey in order to explore it. After a long fatiguing march, over a mountainous wilderneſs, in a weſtward direction, they at length arrived upon its borders; and from the top of an eminence, with joy and wonder, deſcried the beautiful landſcape of Kentucky. Here they encamped, and ſome went to hunt proviſions, which were readily procured, there being plenty of game, while Col. Boon and John Finley made a tour through the country, which they found far exceeding their expectations, and returning to camp, informed their companions of their diſcoveries: But in ſpite of this promiſing beginning, this company, meeting with nothing but hardſhips and adverſity, grew exceedingly diſheartened, and was plundered, diſperſed and killed by the Indians, except Col. Boon, who continued an inhabitant of the wilderneſs until the year 1771, when he returned home.

About this time Kentucky had drawn the attention of ſeveral gentlemen. Doctor Walker of Virginia, with a number more, made a tour weſtward for diſcoveries, endeavouring to find the Ohio river; and afterwards he and General Lewis, at Fort Stanwix, purchaſed from the Five Nations of Indians the lands lying on the north ſide of Kentucky. Col. Donaldſon, of Virginia, being employed by the ſtate to run a line from ſix miles above the Long Iſland, on Holſtein, to the mouth of the Great

* *The following hiſtory is moſtly taken from Mr. John Filſon's account of the diſcovery and ſettlement of Kentucky. To this gentleman I am indebted for much of the information contained in the foregoing deſcription.*

Kanhaway,

Kanhaway, and finding thereby that an extenſive tract of excellent country would be cut off to the Indians, was ſolicited, by the inhabitants of Clench and Holſtein, to purchaſe the lands lying on the north-ſide of Kentucky river from the Five nations. This purchaſe he completed for five hundred pounds, ſpecie. It was then agreed, to fix a boundary line, running from the Long Iſland on Holſtein to the head of Kentucky river; thence down the ſame to the mouth; thence up the Ohio to the mouth of Great Kanhaway; but this valuable purchaſe the ſtate refuſed to confirm.

Col. Henderſon, of North-Carolina, being informed of this country by Col. Boon, he, and ſome other gentlemen, held a treaty with the Cherokee Indians at Wataga, in March 1775, and then purchaſed from them the lands lying on the ſouth ſide of Kentucky river for goods, at valuable rates, to the amount of £.6000 ſpecie.

Soon after this purchaſe, the ſtate of Virginia took the alarm, agreed to pay the money Col. Donaldſon had contracted for, and then diſputed Col. Henderſon's right of purchaſe, as a private gentleman of another ſtate, in behalf of himſelf: However, for his eminent ſervices to this country, and for having been inſtrumental in making ſo valuable an acquiſition to Virginia, that ſtate was pleaſed to reward him with a tract of land, at the mouth of Green river, to the amount of 200,000 acres; and the ſtate of North-Carolina gave him the like quantity in Powel's Valley. This region was formerly claimed by various tribes of Indians; whoſe title, if they had any, originated in ſuch a manner, as to render it doubtful which ought to poſſeſs it: Hence this fertile ſpot became an object of contention, a theatre of war, from which it was properly denominated the Bloody Grounds. Their contentions not being likely to decide the right to any particular tribe, as ſoon as Mr. Henderſon and his friends propoſed to purchaſe, the Indians agreed to ſell; and notwithſtanding the valuable conſideration they received, have continued ever ſince troubleſome neighbours to the new ſettlers.'

The progreſs in improvements and cultivation which have been made in this country, almoſt exceeds belief.—Eleven years ago Kentucky lay in foreſt, almoſt uninhabited but by wild beaſts. Now, notwithſtanding the united oppoſition of all the weſtern Indians, ſhe exhibits an extenſive ſettlement, divided into ſeveral large and populous counties, in which are a number of flouriſhing little towns—containing more inhabitants than are in Georgia, Delaware, or Rhode-Iſland ſtates—and nearly or quite as many as in New-Hampſhire. An inſtance of the like kind, where a ſettlement has had ſo large and ſo rapid a growth, can ſcarcely be produced from the page of hiſtory.

NORTH

NORTH CAROLINA.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		
Length 758 / Breadth 110	Between	34° and 36° 30′ North Latitude. / 1° and 16° West Longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by Virginia; east, by the Atlantic Ocean; south, by South-Carolina and Georgia; west, by the Mississippi *.

Rivers.] *Chowan* river is formed by the confluence of three rivers, viz. the Meherrin, Nottaway and Black rivers; all of which rise in Virginia. It falls into the north-west corner of Albemarle sound, and is three miles wide at its mouth, but narrows fast as you ascend it.

Roanoke is a long rapid river, formed by two principal branches, Staunton river, which rises in Virginia, and Dan river, which rises in North-Carolina. This river is subject to inundations, and is navigable but for shallops, nor for these but about 60 or 70 miles, on account of falls, which in a great measure obstruct the water communication with the back country. It empties, by several mouths, into the south-west end of Albemarle sound. The planters on the banks of this river are supposed to be the wealthiest in North-Carolina. One of them, it is said, raises about 3000 barrels of corn, and 4000 bushels of peas annually.

Cushai is a small river, which empties into Albemarle sound, between Chowan and the Roanoke.

Pamlico or *Tar* river opens into Pamlico sound. Its course is from north-west to south-east. It is navigable for vessels drawing nine feet water to the town of Washington, about 40 miles from its mouth; and for

* *The charter limits of North-Carolina are, a line beginning on the sea side, at a cedar stake, at or near the mouth of a little river, (being the southern extremity of Brunswick county) and running thence a north-west course through the boundary house, in lat.* 33° 56′ *to lat.* 35°, *and on that parallel west as far as is mentioned in the charter of King Charles II. to the original proprietors of Carolina, viz. to the South Sea. Their northern line begins on the sea coast in lat.* 36° 30′, *and runs due west to the termination of the southern line. This line strikes the Mississippi* 15 *miles below the mouth of the Ohio. These limits were ascertained and confirmed agreeable to an order of George II. in council in the year*——. *Great-Britain, by the treaty of* 1763, *gave up her claim to all territory to the west-ward of the Mississippi, and the courts of France and Spain, at the same time, gave her the free navigation of the Mississippi. By the treaty of* 1783, *Great-Britain yielded her interest in that river to the United States. But since Spain now claims the exclusive right of navigating the Mississippi, which right she had given up by the treaty of* 1763 *as abovementioned, North-Carolina resumes her claim to the lands beyond the Mississippi, included within the limits of her original charter.*

ſcows or flats, carrying 30 or 40 hogſheads, 50 miles further, to the town of Tarborough. Beyond this place the river is inconſiderable and is not navigable.

Neus river empties into Pamlico ſound, below Newbern. It is navigable for ſea veſſels about 12 miles above the town of Newbern; for ſcows 50 miles, and for ſmall boats 200 miles.

Trent river, from the ſouth-weſt, falls into the Neus at Newbern. It is navigable for ſea veſſels about 12 miles above the town, and for boats thirty.

There are ſeveral other rivers of leſs note, among which are the *Paſquetank*, *Perquimins*, *Little River*, *Alligator*, &c. which diſcharge themſelves into Albemarle ſound. All the rivers in North-Carolina, and, it may be added, in South-Carolina, Georgia, and the Floridas, which empty into the Atlantic Ocean, are navigable by any veſſel that can paſs the bar at their mouths. While the water courſes continue broad enough for veſſels to run round, there is generally a ſufficient depth of water for them to proceed.

Cape Fear river opens into the ſea at Cape Fear, in about lat. 33° 45′. As you aſcend it, you paſs Brunſwick on the left, and Wilmington on the right. The river then divides into north-eaſt and north-weſt branches, as they are called. It is navigable for large veſſels to Wilmington, and for boats to Fayetteville, near 90 miles farther. This river affords the beſt navigation in North-Carolina. Yadkin river riſes in this ſtate, and running ſouth-eaſtwardly, croſſes into South-Carolina, where it takes the name of Pedee, and paſſes to ſea at George-town.

Peliſon Holſtein, *Noley Chuckey* and *Frank* rivers, are all branches of the Broad Tenneſee, falling into it from the north-eaſt. This noble river croſſes the parallel of 35° north latitude into the ſtate of Georgia, juſt before it paſſes through Cumberland or Laurel Mountains. The paſſage of the river through theſe mountains, occaſions a remarkable *whirl*. The river, which a few miles above is half a mile wide, is here compreſſed to the width of about 100 yards. Juſt as it enters the mountain, a large rock projects from the northern ſhore in an oblique direction, which renders the bed of the river ſtill narrower, and cauſes a ſudden bend; the water of the river is of courſe thrown with great rapidity againſt the ſouthern ſhore, whence it rebounds around the point of the rock, and produces the whirl, which is about 80 yards in circumference. Canoes have often been carried into this whirl, and eſcaped without damage.—In leſs than a mile below the whirl, the river ſpreads into its common width, and, except muſcle ſhoals, flows beautiful and placid, till it mingles with the Ohio.

Sounds, Capes, Inlets, Swamps, &c.] Pamlico ſound is a kind of lake or inland ſea, from 10 to 20 miles broad, and nearly 100 miles in length. It is ſeparated from the ſea, in its whole length, by a beach of ſand hardly a mile wide, generally covered with ſmall trees or buſhes. Through this bank are ſeveral ſmall inlets, by which boats may paſs. But Ocrecok inlet is the only one that will admit veſſels of burden into the diſtricts of Edenton and Newbern. This inlet is in lat. 35° 10′, and opens into Pamlico ſound, between Ocrecok iſland and Core bank; the land on the north is called *Ocrecok*; and on the ſouth *Portſmouth*. A bar of hard ſand croſſes this inlet, on which, at low tide, there are 14 feet water. Six

miles

miles within this bar, is a hard ſand ſhoal, called the *Swaſh*, lying acroſs the channel. On each ſide of the channel are dangerous ſhoals, ſometimes dry. There is from 8 to 9 feet water at full tide, according to the winds, on the Swaſh. Common tides riſe 18 inches on the bar, and 10 on the Swaſh. Between the bar and the Swaſh is good anchoring ground, called the Upper and Lower Anchorages. Ships drawing 10 feet water do not come farther than the firſt anchorage, till lightened. Few mariners, though acquainted with the inlets, chooſe to bring in their own veſſels, as the bar often ſhifts during their abſence on a voyage. North of Pamlico ſound, and communicating with it, is Albemarle ſound, 60 miles in length, and from 8 to 12 in breadth.

Core ſound lies ſouth of Pamlico, and communicates with it. Theſe ſounds are ſo large when compared with their inlets from the ſea, that no tide can be perceived in any of the rivers which empty into them, nor is the water ſalt even in the mouths of theſe rivers.

Cape Hatteras is in lat. 35° 15′. In old charts the ſhoals of this cape are marked as having in ſome places only 3, 4 and 5 feet water upon them. Experienced pilots and mariners, however, now ſay that there is in no place, after you get two miles from the land, leſs than nine feet water. The beſt channel for veſſels is about a league and a half from the land at the cape, having in no place, at this diſtance, leſs than two and a half fathoms of water. Veſſels from the northward, by diſplaying a jack from the fore top-maſt, are uſually boarded by a pilot from the land. Some of the pilots carry branches, and ſome good ones carry none. This cape has been dreaded by mariners ſailing ſouthward when they have been in large veſſels; for if they come within 20 miles of the land at the cape, it is in ſome places too ſhoal for them; if they ſtand further off they are in danger of falling into the Gulph Stream, which would ſet them 3 or 4 miles an hour northward. It is obſervable that violent ſtorms of rain and guſts of wind, are uncommonly frequent around this cape.

Cape Lookout is ſouth of Cape Hatteras, oppoſite Core ſound, and has already been mentioned as having had an excellent harbour entirely filled up with land ſince the year 1777.

Cape Fear is remarkable for a dangerous ſhoal, called, from its form, the *Frying-pan*. This ſhoal lies at the entrance of Cape Fear river.

Diſmal Swamp ſpreads over the whole tract of country which lies between Pamlico and Albemarle ſounds, and needs no other deſcription than is conveyed by its name. There is another large ſwamp north of Elenton, which lies partly in this ſtate, and parly in Virginia.

This ſwamp is owned by two companies; the Virginia company, of which General Waſhington is a member, hold 100,000 acres; and the North-Carolina company, who hold about 40,000 acres. It is in contemplation to cut a canal through this ſwamp, from the head of Paſquetank, to the head of Elizabeth river, in Virginia, 12 or 14 miles in length.

Civil Diviſions.] This ſtate is divided into 8 diſtricts, which are ſubdivided into 58 counties, as follows:

Diſtricts.

Diſtricts	*Counties.*	*Diſtricts.*	*Counties.*
Edenton, 9 counties	Chowan, Churrituck, Cambden, Paſquetank, Perquimins, Gates, Hertford, Bertie, Tyrrel.	Halifax, 7 counties.	Halifax, Northampton, Martin, Edgecombe, Warren, Franklin, Naſh.
Wilmington, 8 counties,	New Hanover, Brunſwick, Cumberland, Robinſon, Duplin, Beaden, Wayne, Moore.	Hillſborough, 9 counties.	Orange, Chatan, Granville, Johnſton, Caſwell, Sampſon, Wake, Guilford, Randolph.
Newbern, 8 counties.	Craven, Beaufort, Carteret, Pitt, Dobbs, Hyde. Jones, Onſlow.	Saliſbury, 8 counties.	Rowan, Mecklenburg, Rockingham, Surry, Montgomery, Anſon Wilkes, Richmond.
The above three diſtricts are on the ſea coaſt, extending from the Virginia line ſouth-weſtward to South-Carolina.		Morgan, 7 counties.	Burk, Green, Rutherford, Waſhington, Sullivan, Lincoln, Hawkins.
Davidſon, 2 counties.	Davidſon, Summer.		

Theſe five diſtricts, beginning on the Virginia line, cover the whole ſtate weſt of the three maritime diſtricts before mentioned; and the greater part of them extend quite acroſs the ſtate from north to ſouth.

Principal Towns.] Newbern, Edenton, Wilmington, Halifax, Hillſborough and Fayetteville, each in their turns have been conſidered as the capital of the ſtate. At preſent they have no capital. The convention which met to coſider the new conſtitution, fixed on a place in Wake county to be the ſeat of government, but the town is not yet built.

NEWBERN is the largeſt town in the ſtate. It ſtands on a flat, ſandy point of land, formed by the confluence of the rivers Neus on the north, and Trent on the ſouth. Oppoſite the town, the Neus is about a mile and a half, and the Trent three quarters of a mile wide. The town contains about 400 houſes, all built of wood, excepting the palace, the church, the gaol and two dwelling houſes, which are of brick. The palace is a building erected by the province before the revolution, and was formerly the reſidence of the governors. It is large and elegant, two ſtories high, with two

two wings for offices, a little advanced in front towards the town; these wings are connected with the principal building by a circular arcade. This once handsome and well furnished building is now much out of repair. One of the halls is used for a dancing, and another for a school room; —which are the only present uses of this palace. The arms of the king of Great-Britain still appear in a pediment in front of the building. The Episcopal church is a small brick building, with a bell. It is the only house for public worship in the place. A rum distillery has been lately erected in this town. It is the county town of Craven county, and has a court-house and goal. The court-house is raised on brick arches, so as to render the lower part a convenient market-place; but the principal marketing is done with the people in their canoes and boats at the river side.

EDENTON is situated on the north side of Albemarle sound, and has about 150 indifferent wood houses, and a few handsome buildings. It has a brick church for Episcopalians, which for many years has been much neglected, and serves only to shew that the people once had a regard, at least, for the *externals* of religion. Its local situation is advantageous for trade, but not for health. It is the county town of Chowan county, and has a court-house and goal. In or near this town lived the proprietory, and the first of the royal governors.

WILMINGTON is a town of about 180 houses, situated on the east side of the eastern branch of Cape Fear river, 34 miles from the sea. The course of the river, as it passes by the town, is from north to south, and is about 150 yards wide.

In 1786, a fire broke out, supposed to have been kindled by negroes. and consumed about 25 or 30 houses. The town is rebuilding slowly, A printing-office was established here in 1788.

WASHINGTON and TARBOROUGH are two flourishing, trading towns on Tar river. About 130 small vessels enter annually at the custom-house for this river.

HILLSBOROUGH is an inland town, situated in a high, healthy, and fertile country, 180 miles north of the west from Newbern. It is settled by about 60 or 70 families, and has an academy of 60 or 80 students, under the care of suitable instructors, and patronized by the principal gentlemen in the state, who have been liberal in their donations.

Face of the Country, Soil and Productions.] North-Carolina, in its whole width, for 60 miles from the sea, is a dead level. A great proportion of this tract lies in forest, and is barren. On the banks of some of the rivers, particularly of the Roanoke, the land is fertile and good. Interspersed through the other parts, are glades of rich swamp, and ridges of oak land, of a black, fertile soil. In all this champagne country, marine productions are found by digging 18 or 20 feet below the surface of the ground. The sea coast, the sounds, inlets, and lower parts of the rivers, have uniformly a muddy, soft bottom. Sixty and eighty miles from the sea, the country rises into hills and mountains, as described under this head in South-Carolina and Georgia.

That part of North-Carolina which lies west of the mountains, a tract about 500 miles in length, east and west, and upwards of 100 in breadth, (except the Cumberland barrens, and some broken lands) is a fine fertile country, watered by the broad Tenneffee, and abounds with oaks,

oaks, locuſt trees of ſeveral kinds, walnut, elm, linn, and cherry trees, ſome of which are three feet in diameter.

Wheat, rye, barley, oats and flax grow well in the back hilly country. Indian corn and pulſe of all kinds in all parts. Ground peas run on the ſurface of the earth, and are covered by hand with a light mould, and the pods grow under ground. They are eaten raw or roaſted, and taſte much like a hazlenut. Cotton is alſo conſiderably cultivated here, and might be raiſed in much greater plenty. It is planted yearly: the ſtalk dies with the froſt.

Trade.] A great proportion of the produce of the back country, conſiſting of tobacco, wheat, Indian corn, &c. is carried to market in South-Carolina and Virginia. The ſouthern interior counties carry their produce to Charleſton; and the northern to Peterſburg, in Virginia. The exports from the lower parts of the ſtate, are, tar, pitch, turpentine, roſin, Indian corn, boards, ſcantling, ſtaves, ſhingles, furs, tobacco, pork, lard, tallow, bees-wax, myrtle-wax, and a few other articles. Their trade is chiefly with the Weſt-Indies, and the northern ſtates. From the latter they receive flour, cheeſe, cyder, apples, potatoes, iron wares, cabinet wares, hats, and dry goods of all kinds, imported from Great-Britain, France, and Holland, teas, &c. From the Weſt-Indies, rum, ſugar, and coffee.

Climate, Diſeaſes, &c.] In the flat country near the ſea coaſt, the inhabitants, during the ſummer and autumn, are ſubject to intermitting fevers, which often prove fatal, as bilious or nervous ſymptoms prevail. Theſe fevers are ſeldom immediately dangerous to the natives who are temperate, or to ſtrangers who are prudent. They, however, if ſuffered to continue for any length of time, bring on other diſorders, which greatly impair the natural vigor of the mind, debilitate the conſtitution, and terminate in death. The countenances of the inhabitants, during theſe ſeaſons, have generally a pale yellowiſh caſt, occaſioned by the prevalence of bilious ſymptoms. They have very little of the bloom and freſhneſs of the people in the northern ſtates.

It has been obſerved that more of the inhabitants, of the men eſpecially, die during the winter, by the pleuriſies and peripneumonies, than during the warm months by bilious complaints. Theſe pleuriſies are brought on by intemperance, and by an imprudent expoſure to the weather. Were the inhabitants cautious and prudent in theſe reſpects, it is alledged by their phyſicians, that they might, in general, eſcape the danger of theſe fatal diſeaſes. The uſe of flannel next to the ſkin is reckoned an excellent preventative, during the winter, of the diſeaſes incident to this climate. The weſtern hilly parts of the ſtate are as healthy as any of the United States. That country is fertile, full of ſprings and rivulets of pure water. The air there is ſerene a great part of the year, and the inhabitants live to old age, which cannot ſo generally be ſaid of the inhabitants of the flat country. Though the days in ſummer are extremely hot, the nights are cool and refreſhing. Autumn is very pleaſant, both in regard to the temperature and ſerenity of the weather, and the richneſs and variety of the vegetable productions which the ſeaſon affords. The winters are ſo mild in ſome years, that autumn may be ſaid to countinue till ſpring. Wheat harveſt is the beginning of June, and that of Indian corn early in September.

Natural,

Natural hiſtory.] The large natural growth of the plains in the low country, is almoſt univerſally pitch pine; which is a tall, handſome tree, far ſuperior to the pitch pine of the northern ſtates. This tree may be called the ſtaple commodity of North-Carolina. It affords pitch, tar, turpentine, and various kinds of lumber, which together conſtitute at leaſt one-half of the exports of this ſtate. This pine is of two kinds, the common and the long leaved. The latter has a leaf ſhaped like other pines, but is nearly half a yard in length, hanging in large cluſters. No country produces finer white and red oak for ſtaves. The ſwamps abound with cypreſs and bay trees. The latter is an ever-green, and is food for cattle in the winter. The leaves are ſhaped like thoſe of the peach tree, but larger. The moſt common kinds of timber in the back country, are, oak, walnut, and pine. A ſpecies of oak grows in the moiſt, gravelly ſoil. called Black Jack. It ſeldom grows larger than 8 or 9 inches diameter, It is worthy of remark, that the trees in the low country, near the ſea coaſt, are loaded with vaſt quantities of a long, ſpongy kind of moſs, which, by abſorbing the noxious vapour that is exhaled from ſtagnated waters, contributes much, it is ſuppoſed, to the healthineſs of the climate. This hypotheſis is confirmed by experience, ſince it is commonly obſerved, that the country is much leſs healthy after having been cleared, than while in a ſtate of nature.

The Miſletoe is common in the black country. This is a ſhrub which differs in kind, perhaps, from all others. It never grows out of the earth, but on the tops of trees. The roots (if they may be ſo called) run under the bark of the tree, and incorporate with the wood. It is an ever-green, reſembling the garden box-wood.

The principal wild fruits are plums, grapes, ſtrawberries, and blackberries.

The country is generally covered with herbage of various kinds, and a ſpecies of wild graſs. It abounds with medicinal plants and roots. Among others are the ginſeng, Virginia ſnake root, Seneca ſnake root, an herb of the emetic kind, like the ipecacuanha. Lyons heart, which is a ſovereign remedy for the bite of a ſerpant. A ſpecies of the ſenſitive plant is alſo found here; it is a ſort of brier, the ſtalk of which dies with the froſt, but the root lives through the winter, and ſhoots again in the ſpring. The lighteſt touch of a leaf cauſes it to run and cling cloſe to the ſtalk. Although it ſo eaſily takes the alarm, and apparently ſhrinks from danger, in the ſpace of two minutes after it is touched, it perfectly recovers its former ſituation. The mucipula veneris is alſo found here. The rich bottoms are overgrown with canes. Their leaves are green all the winter, and afford an excellent food for cattle. They are of a ſweetiſh taſte like the ſtalks of green corn, which they in many reſpects reſemble.

Religion.] The weſtern parts of this ſtate, which have been ſettled within the laſt 35 years, are chiefly inhabited by Preſbyterians from Pennſylvania, the deſcendents of the people from the North of Ireland, and are exceedingly attached to the doctrines, diſcipline, and uſages of the church of Scotland. They are a regular induſtrious people. Almoſt all the inhabitants between the Catawby and Yadkin rivers, are of this denomination, and they are in general well ſupplied with a ſenſible and learned miniſtry

miniſtry. There are interſperſed ſome ſettlements of Germans, both Lutherans and Calviniſts, but they have very few miniſters.

The Moravians have ſeveral flouriſhing ſettlements in this ſtate. In 1751, they purchaſed of Lord Granville one hundred thouſand acres of land, between Dan and Yadkin rivers, about 10 miles ſouth of Pilot mountain, in Surry county, and called it Wachovia, after an eſtate of Count Zinzendorf, in Auſtria. In 1755, this tract, by an act of aſſembly, was made a ſeparate pariſh by the name of Dobb's pariſh. The firſt ſettlement, called Bethabara, was begun in 1753, by a number of the brethren from Pennſylvania, in a very wild, uninhabited country, which, from that time, began to be rapidly ſettled by farmers from the middle ſtates.

In 1759, Bethany, a regular village, was laid out and ſettled. In 1766, Salem, which is now the principal ſettlement, and nearly in the centre of Wachovia, was ſettled by a collection of tradeſmen. The ſame conſtitution and regulations are eſtabliſhed here, as in other regular ſettlements of the united brethren. Beſides, there are in Wachovia three churches, one in Friedland, one in Friedberg, and another at Hope, each of which has a miniſter of the Brethren's church. Theſe people, by their induſtry and attention to various branches of manufacture, are very uſeful to the country around them.

The Friends, or Quakers, have a ſettlement in New-Garden, in Guilford county, and ſeveral congregations at Perquimins and Paſquetank. The Methodiſts and Baptiſts are numerous and increaſing. Beſides the denominations already mentioned, there is a very numerous body of people in this, and in all the ſouthern ſtates, who cannot properly be claſſed with any ſect of chriſtians, having never made any profeſſion of chriſtianity, and are literally, as to religion, NOTHINGARIANS.

The inhabitants of Wilmington, Newbern, Edenton, and Halifax diſtricts, making about three-fifths of the ſtate, one profeſſed themſelves of the Epiſcopal church. The clergy, in theſe diſtricts, were chiefly miſſionaries; and in forming their political attachments, at the commencement of the late war, perſonal ſafety, or real intereſt, or perhaps a thorough conviction of the injuſtice and impolicy of oppoſing Great-Britain from whence they received their ſalaries, induced them almoſt univerſally to declare themſelves in favour of the Britiſh government, and to emigrate. There may be one or two of the original clergy remaining, but at preſent they have no particular paſtoral charge. Indeed the inhabitants in the diſtricts above-mentioned, ſeem now to be making the experiment, whether chriſtianity can exiſt long in a country where there is no viſible chriſtian church. Thirteen years experience has proved that it probably cannot; for there is very little *external* appearance of religion among the people in general. The Baptiſts and Methodiſts have ſent a number of miſſionary preachers into theſe diſtricts; and ſome of them have pretty large congregations. It is not improbable that one or the other of the denominations, and perhaps both, may acquire conſiſtency and eſtabliſh permanent churches.

College and Academies.] There is no univerſity or college in the ſtate. In the original conſtitution it is declared, that 'There ſhall be one or more ſeminaries of learning maintained at the public expence.' But the legiſlature

ture, hitherto, have not conſidered that clauſe as binding. Probably they do not like it. Academies are eſtabliſhed at Newbern, Saliſbury, and Hilliſborough. The latter has been already mentioned and deſcribed. The one at Saliſbury had, in 1786, about fity ſcholars, under the tuition of a worthy clergyman. It is ſituated in a rich, healthy country, and is flouriſhing.

Population, Character, Manners, and Cuſtoms.] The inhabitants of this ſtate are reckoned at 270,000, of which 60,000 are negroes. The North-Carolinians are moſtly planters, and live from half a mile to 3 or 4 miles from each other, on their plantations. They have a plentiful country—no ready market for their produce—little intercourſe with ſtrangers, and a natural fondneſs for ſociety, which induce them to be hoſpitable to travellers. In the lower diſtricts the inhabitants have very few places for public and weekly worſhip of any kind; and theſe few, being deſtitute of miniſters, are ſuffered to ſtand neglected. The ſabbath of courſe, which, in moſt civilized countries, is profeſſionally and externally, at leaſt, regarded as holy time, and which, conſidered merely in a civil view, is an excellent eſtabliſhment for the promotion of cleanlineſs, friendſhip, harmony, and all the ſocial virtues, is here generally diſregarded, or diſtinguiſhed by the convivial viſitings of the white inhabitants, and the noiſy diverſions of the negroes. The women, except in ſome of the populous towns, have very little intercourſe with each other, and are almoſt entirely deſtitute of the bloom and vivacity of the north: yet they poſſeſs a great deal of kindneſs, and, except that they ſuffer their infant babes to ſuck the breaſts of their black nurſes, are good mothers, and *obedient* wives.

The general topics of converſation among the men, when cards, the bottle, and occurrences of the day do not intervene, are negroes, the prices of indigo, rice, tobacco, &c. They appear to have as little taſte for the ſciences as for religion. Political enquiries, and philoſophical diſquiſitions are attended to but by a few men of genius and induſtry, and are too laborious for the indolent minds of the people at large. Leſs attention and reſpect are paid to the women here, than in thoſe parts of the United States where the inhabitants have made greater progreſs in the arts of civilized life. Indeed, it is a truth, confirmed by obſervation, that in proportion to the advancement of civilization, in the ſame proportion will reſpect for the women be increaſed; ſo that the progreſs of civilization in countries, in ſtates, in towns, and in families, may be marked by the degree of attention which is paid by huſbands to their wives, and by the young men to the young women.

Temperance and induſtry are not to be reckoned among the virtues of the North-Carolinians. The time which they waſte in drinking, idling, and gambling, leaves them very little opportunity to improve their plantations to their minds. The improvement of the former is left to their overſeers and negroes; the improvement of the latter is too often neglected. Were the time, which is thus waſted, ſpent in cultivating the ſoil, and in treaſuring up knowledge, they might be both wealthy and learned; for they have a productive country, and are by no means deſtitute of genius.

Time that is not employed in ſtudy or uſeful labour, in every country, is generally ſpent in hurtful or innocent exerciſes, according to the cuſtom of the place, or the taſte of the parties. The citizens of North-Carolina, who are not better employed, ſpend their time in drinking, or gaming at cards or dice, in cock-fighting, or horſe-racing. Many of the interludes are filled up with a boxing match; and theſe matches frequently become memorable by feats of *gouging* *.

In a country that pretends to any degree of civilization, one would hardly expect to find a prevailing cuſtom of putting out the eyes of each other. Yet this more than barbarous cuſtom is prevalent in both the Carolinas, and in Georgia, among the lower claſs of people. Of the origin of this cuſtom we are not informed. We preſume there are few competitors for the honour of having originated it; and equally as few who are envious of the *pleaſure* of thoſe who have the *honour* to continue it.

North-Carolina has had a rapid growth. In the year 1710, it contained but about 1200 fencible men. It is now, in point of numbers, the fourth ſtate in the union. During this amazing progreſs in population, which has been greatly aided by emigrations from Pennſylvania, Virginia, and other ſtates, while each has been endeavouring to increaſe his fortune, the human mind, like an unweeded garden, has been ſuffered to ſhoot up in wild diſorder. But when we conſider that, during the late revolution, this ſtate produced many diſtinguiſhed patriots and politicians, that ſhe ſent her thouſands to the defence of Georgia and South-Carolina, and gave occaſional ſuccours to Virginia—when we conſider too the difficulties ſhe has had to encounter from a mixture of inhabitants, collected from different parts, ſtrangers to each other, and intent upon gain, we ſhall find many things worthy of praiſe in her general character.

Conſtitution.] By the conſtitution of this ſtate, which was ratified in December, 1776, all legiſlative authority is veſted in two diſtinct branches, both dependent on the people, viz. A *Senate* and *Houſe of Commons*, which, when convened for buſineſs, are ſtyled the *General Aſſembly*.

The Senate is compoſed of repreſentatives, one for each country, choſen annually by ballot.

The Houſe of Commons conſiſts of repreſentatives choſen in the ſame way, two for each county, and one for each of the towns of Edenton, Newbern, Wilmington, Saliſbury, Hillſborough, and Halifax.

The qualifications for a ſenator, are one year's reſidence, immediately preceding his election, in the county in which he is choſen, and 300 acres of land in fee.

* *The* delicate *and* entertaining diverſion, *with propriety called* gouging, *is thus performed. When two* boxers *are worried with fighting and bruiſing each other, they come, as it is called, to* cloſe quarters, *and each endeavours to twiſt his forefingers in the ear-locks of his antagoniſt. When theſe are faſt clenched, the thumbs are extended each way to the noſe, and the eyes* gently *turned out of their ſockets. The victor, for his expertneſs, receives ſhouts of applauſe from the ſportive throng, while his poor* eyeleſs *antageniſt is laughed at for his misfortune.*

A mem-

A member of the Houſe of Commons muſt have uſually reſided in the county in which he is elected, one year immediately preceding his election, and for ſix months ſhall have poſſeſſed, and continue to poſſeſs, in the county which he repreſents, not leſs than 100 acres of land in fee, or for the term of his own life.

A freeman of 21 years of age, who has been an inhabitant in the ſtate twelve months immediately preceding the day of any election, and who had poſſeſſed a freehold of fifty acres of land within the county for ſix months next before, and at the day of election, is entitled to vote for a member of the ſenate.

All freemen, of 21 years of age, who have been inhabitants of the ſtate the year next before the election, and have paid public taxes, may vote for members of the Houſe of Commons.

The Senate and Houſe of Commons, when convened, chooſe each their own ſpeaker, and are judges of the qualifications and elections of their members. They jointly, by ballot at their firſt meeting after each annual election, chooſe a governor for one year, who is not eligible to that office longer than three years in ſix ſucceſſive years; and who muſt poſſeſs a freehold of more than £.1000, and have been an inhabitant of the ſtate above five years. They, in the ſame manner and at the ſame time, elect ſeven perſons to be a council of ſtate for one year, to adviſe the governor in the execution of his office. They appoint a treaſurer or treaſurers for the ſtate. They triennially chooſe a ſtate-ſecretary. They jointly appoint judges of the ſupreme courts of law and equity—judges of admiralty, and the attorney-general, who are commiſſioned by the governor, and hold their offices during good behaviour. They prepare bills—which muſt be read three times in each houſe, and be ſigned by the ſpeaker of both houſes, before they paſs into laws.

Judges of the ſupreme court—members of council—judges of admiralty—treaſurers—ſecretaries—attorney-generals for the ſtate—clerks of record—clergymen—perſons denying the Being of a God—the truth of the proteſtant religion, or the divine authority of the Old or New Teſtament—receivers of public monies, whoſe accounts are unſettled—military officers in actual ſervice are all ineligible to a ſeat either in the Senate or Houſe of Commons. Juſtices of the peace, being recommended by the repreſentatives, are commiſſioned by the governor, and hold their offices during good behaviour. The conſtitution allows of no religious eſtabliſhment. The legiſlature are authorized to regulate entails ſo as to prevent perpetuities—a majority of both houſes is neceſſary to do buſineſs.

New Settlements, Roads, &c.] Davidſon county, in this ſtate, is one of the moſt weſtern ſettlements in the United States. This county was eſtabliſhed by the name of Davidſon, in honour of Brigadier-general William Davidſon, who fell oppoſing the army under Lord Cornwallis, acroſs the Yadkin river, in the year 1781, and begins where the river Tenneſſee or Cherokee interſects the north boundary of the ſtate; thence due eaſt with the ſaid boundary to the ſecond interſection of the ſaid boundary, by the Cumberland or Shawanee river, being 140 miles; thence ſouth 55 geographical miles; thence weſt to the Tenneſſee; thence down the meanders thereof to the beginning. The Tenneſſee croſſes the north boundary of the ſtate 58 miles, and the ſouth boundary thereof about 80 miles eaſt

of the Miſſiſippi.—In the year 1782, the legiſlature of North-Carolina appointed commiſſioners to explore the weſtern part of the ſtate, (by which is meant, as well the lands at preſent included in Davidſon county, as thoſe between the ſouth boundary of the ſtate and the ſouth boundary of this county, and thoſe between the rivers Miſſiſippi and Tenneſſee) and report to the ſucceeding legiſlature, which part was beſt for the payment of the bounty promiſed to the officers and ſoldiers of the Continental Line of that ſtate; and they accordingly did explore the before deſcribed tract of country, and reported to the legiſlature in the ſpring of the year 1783.—Although this county was not eſtabliſhed by law before the laſt-mentioned period, yet a few families had ſettled in the year 1780, principally under the guidance and direction of James Robertſon (at preſent colonel of that county) on Cumberland river, and called the place Naſhville, in honour of Brigadier-general Francis Naſh, who fell at German-town in the year 1777; but he had but few followers until the year 1783, after the peace had taken place, and after an act had paſſed directing the military or bounty warrants of the officers and ſoldiers to be located in this county. Theſe circumſtances induced many officers and ſoldiers to repair immediately thither, to ſecure and ſettle their lands; and ſuch as did not chooſe to go ſold their warrants to citizens who did go. Many people from almoſt every ſtate in the Union became purchaſers of theſe military warrants, and are ſince become reſidents of this county; and many valuable and opulent families have removed to it from the Natches.—Colonel Robertſon, when he ſettled at Naſhville, was upwards of 200 miles diſtant (to the weſtward) from any other ſettlement in his own ſtate, and was equally diſtant from the ſettled parts of Kentucky. Hence it will readily be ſuppoſed that himſelf and party were in danger every hour of being cut off by the Indians, againſt whom his principal ſecurity was, that he was nearly as diſtant from them as from the white people; and ſlender as this ſecurity may appear, his party never ſuſtained any damage from the Indians, but what was done by parties of hunters who happened to find out his ſettlements.—The face of this country is in general level, and the ſoil very rich, equal to any other part of America, and produces in abundance every thing that can be expected from ſo temperate a climate and ſo rich a ſoil. It is common for the planter to gather from his fields, upon an average, 60 buſhels of Indian corn per acre. This county is well watered by the rivers Tenneſſee and Cumberland, and their branches. Both of theſe rivers empty into the Ohio ſhortly after they paſs the north boundary of the ſtate. As the waters of the Cumberland from Naſhville, and of the Tenneſſee from the Muſcle Shoals to the Ohio, are equally deep as the waters of the Ohio and Miſſiſippi, the people, of courſe, who live in this county, or the adjacent country, have the ſame advantages of water conveyance for trade, as thoſe who live on the Ohio or Miſſiſippi, to New-Orleans, or elſewhere.

Beſides, there is another probable avenue through which trade will be carried on with this county and the adjacent country, which is from Mobille, up the waters of the Mobille river as far as navigable, thence by a land carriage of about 50 miles (at moſt) to Ocochappo creek, which empties into the Tenneſſee at the lower end of the Muſcle Shoals.—The mouth

mouth of this creek is the center of a piece of ground, the diameter of which is 5 miles, ceded by the ſouthern Indians at the treaty at Hopwell, on Keeowee, to the United States for the eſtabliſhment of trading poſts.

At Naſhville, the inferior and ſuperior courts of the county are held, in which good order is obſerved, and juſtice ſpeedily and ſatisfactorily adminiſtered. Two houſes in this town are ſet apart for divine worſhip, in which divine ſervice is regularly performed on the ſabbath.

The legiſlature of North-Carolina, at their ſeſſion in the year 1786, paſſed a law for the eſtabliſhment of an academy in this town, with liberal endowments.

It is to be obſerved that this county, though it lies upwards of 200 miles weſt of what is commonly called the ſtate of Franklin, never departed from her allegiance to the ſtate of North-Carolina, but continued to ſend her members to the legiſlature, although they had to paſs through the ſtate of Franklin.

The following are the diſtances on the new road from Naſhville, in Davidſon county, to Fort Campbell, near the junction of Holſtein river with the Tenneſſee.

	miles.		*miles.*
From Naſhville to Stony river	9	From Grovet's creek -	7
Big Spring - -	6	The foot of Cumberland	
Cedar Lick - -	4	Mountain -	2
Little Spring - -	6	Through the mountain	
Barton's creek - -	4	to Emmeries river, a	
Spring creek - -	5	branch of the Peliſon	11
Martin's Spring -	5	To the Pappa Ford of	
Blair's Spring - -	5	the Peliſon or Clinch	
Buck Spring - -	12	river - -	12
Fountaines - -	8	To Campbell's ſtation	
Smith's creek -	6	near Holſtein -	10
Coney river - -	11	To the Great Iſland	100
Mine Lick - -	9	To Abingdon in Waſh-	
Falling creek - -	9	ington county - -	35
War Path - -	7	To Richmond in Virgi-	
Bear creek - -	18	nia - - -	280
Camp creek - -	8		
King's Spring -	16	Total	605

By this new road, a pleaſant paſſage may be had to the weſtern country with carriages, as there will be only the Cumberland mountain to paſs; and that is eaſy of aſcent—and beyond it, the road is generally level and firm; abounding with fine ſprings of water.

Hiſtory.] The hiſtory of North-Carolina is leſs known than that of any of the other ſtates. From the beſt accounts that hiſtory affords, the firſt permanent ſettlement in North-Carolina was made about the year 1710, by a number of Palatines from Germany, who had been reduced to circumſtances of great indigence, by a calamitous war. The proprietors of Carolina, knowing that the value of their lands depended on the ſtrength

of

of their ſettlements, determined to give every poſſible encouragement to ſuch emigrants. Ships were accordingly provided for their tranſportation —and inſtructions were given to governor Tynte to allow an hundred acres of land for every man, woman and child, free of quit-rents for the firſt ten years; but at the expiration of that term, to pay one penny per acre, annual rent for ever, according to the uſages and cuſtoms of the province. Upon their arrival, Governor Tynte granted them a tract of land in North-Carolina, ſince called Albemarle and Bath precincts, where they ſettled, and flattered themſelves with having found, in the hideous wilderneſs, a happy retreat from the deſolations of a war which then raged in Europe.

In the year 1712, a dangerous conſpiracy was formed by the Coree and Tuſcorora tribes of Indians, to murder and expel this infant colony. The foundation for this conſpiracy is not known. Probably they were offended at the encroachments upon their hunting ground. They managed their conſpiracy with great cunning and profound ſecrecy. They ſurrounded their principal town with a breſt-work to ſecure their families. Here the warriors convened to the number of 1200. From this place of rendezvous they ſent out ſmall parties, by different roads, who entered the ſettlement under the maſk of friendſhip. At the change of the full moon, all of them had agreed to begin their murderous operations the ſame night. When the night came, they entered the houſes of planters, demanding proviſions, and pretending to be offended, fell to murdering men, women and children without mercy or diſtinction. One hundred and thirty-ſeven ſettlers, among whom were a Swiſs baron, and almoſt all the poor Palatines that had lately come into the country, were ſlaughtered the firſt night. Such was the ſecrecy and diſpatch of the Indians in this expedition, that none knew what had befallen his neighbour, until the barbarians had reached his own door. Some few, however, eſcaped, and gave the alarm.—The militia aſſembled in arms, and kept watch day and night, until the news of the ſaid diſaſter had reached the province of South-Carolina. Governor Craven loſt no time in ſending a force to their relief. —The aſſembly voted £.4000 for the ſervice of the war. A body of 600 militia, under the command of Colonel Barnwell, and 366 Indians of different tribes, with different commanders, marched with great expedition through a hideous wilderneſs, to their aſſiſtance. In their firſt encounter with the Indians, they killed 300, and took 100 priſoners. After this defeat, the Tuſcororas retreated to their fortified town—which was ſhortly after ſurrendered to colonel Barnwell. In this whole expedition it was computed that near a thouſand Tuſcororas were killed, wounded and taken. The remainder of the tribe ſoon after abandoned their country, and joined the Five Nations, with whom they have ever ſince remained. After this the infant colony remained in peace, and continued to flouriſh under the general government of South-Carolina, till about the year 1729, when ſeven of the proprietors, for a valuable conſideration *, veſted their property and juriſdiction in the crown, and the colony was erected into a ſeperate province, by the name of North-Carolina and its preſent limits

* *See Page* 31.

eſtabliſhed

eſtabliſhed by an order of George II. From this period to the revolution in 1776, the hiſtory of North-Carolina is unpubliſhed, and of courſe unknown, except to thoſe who have had acceſs to the records of the province. Some of the moſt important events that have ſince taken place, have been already mentioned in the general hiſtory of the United States.

In the year 1785, the inhabitants of the counties of Sullivan, Waſhington and Greene, which lie directly weſt of the mountains in this ſtate, convened in committees—appointed and held a convention—framed a conſtitution—elected their governor—and in ſhort erected themſelves into a ſeparate, independent ſtate, by the name of the *New State of Franklin*. This premature ſtate, was to comprehend all that tract of country which lies between the mountains and the *Suck* or *Whirl*, in the Tenneſſee river. Theſe proceedings occaſioned great confuſions and warm diſputes in North-Carolina, which continued to rage till the year 1788, when all pretenſions to independency were relinquiſhed, and tranquillity was reſtored to the ſtate.

The weſtern and frontier ſettlements, for ſome time paſt, have been, and ſtill are harraſſed by the Creek and Cherokee Indians, who have done conſiderable damage, and killed many of the inhabitants. The lateſt accounts from this ſtate are, that the aſſembly have voted to raiſe an army of 1500 men, not only to prevent the incurſions of the enemy, but to carry war into their own country, and to compel them to ſue for peace.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

SITUATION and EXTENT.

	Miles.		
Length	200	Between	32° and 35° 30′ North Latitude.
Breadth	125		4° and 9° Weſt Longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED eaſt, by the Atlantic ocean; north, by North-Carolina; ſouth-weſt and ſouth, by Savannah river, which divides it from Georgia. The weſtern boundary has not yet, with accuracy, been aſcertained *

Climate.] The climate is different in different parts of the ſtate. Along the ſea-coaſt, bilious diſeaſes and fevers of all kinds are prevalent between July and October. The probability of dying is much greater between

* See Hiſtory.

the

the 20th of June and the 20th of October, than in the other eight months in the year.

One cauſe of theſe diſeaſes is, a low marſhy country, which is overflowed for the ſake of cultivating rice. The exhalations from theſe ſtagnated waters—from the rivers—and from the neighbouring ocean—and the profuſe perſpiration of vegetables of all kinds, which cover the ground, fill the air with moiſture. This moiſture falls in frequent rains, and copious dews. From actual obſervation it was found that the average annual fall of rain for ten years was 42 inches; without regarding the moiſture that fell in fogs and dews. The great heat of the day relaxes the body, and the agreeable cooleneſs of the evening invites to an expoſure of theſe heavy dews. But a ſecond, and probably a more operative cauſe in producing diſeaſes, is the indolence of the inhabitants. On this, phyſicians ſay, more than on any unavoidable injurious qualities in the air, are chargeable the diſeaſes ſo common in this country. The upper country, ſituated in the medium, between heat and cold, is as healthful as any part of the United States.

Rivers.] This ſtate is watered by four large, navigable rivers, beſides a great number of ſmaller ones, which are paſſable in boats. The river *Savannah* waſhes it in its whole length from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt. The *Ediſto* riſes in two branches from a remarkable ridge in the interior part of the ſtate. Theſe branches unite a little below Orangeburgh, which ſtands on the Nork Folk, and form Ediſto river, which, having paſſed Jackſonſburgh, branches and embraces Ediſto iſland.

Santee is the largeſt and longeſt river in this ſtate. It empties into the ocean by two mouths, a little ſouth of Georgetown. About 120 miles, in a direct line from its mouth, it branches into the *Congaree* and *Waterce*; the latter or northern branch paſſes the Catabaw nation of Indians, and bears the name of the *Catabaw* river from this ſettlement to its ſource. The *Congaree* branches into *Saluda* and *Broad* rivers. Broad river again branches into *Enoree*, *Tyger* and *Pacolet* rivers; on the latter of which are the celebrated Pacolet Springs. Juſt below the junction of Saluda and Broad Rivers, on the Congaree, ſtands the town of COLUMBIA, which is intended to be the future ſeat of government in this ſtate.

Pedee river riſes in North-Carolina, where it is called *Yadkin* river. In this ſtate however, it takes the name of Pedee, and receiving Lynche's creek and Wakkamaw river, paſſes by George-town, which it leaves on the eaſt, and 12 miles below, it empties into the ocean. All the foremention ed rivers, except Ediſto, riſe from various ſources in that ridge of mountains which divides the waters which flow into the Atlantic Ocean from thoſe which fall into the Miſſiſippi.

The rivers of a ſecondary ſize, many of which are no more than arms of the ſea; the others riſing from ſwamps or ſavannahs, are Caaſaw, Combahee, Wakkamaw, Atnley, Cooper and Black rivers.

The tide, in no part of the ſtate, flows more than 25 miles from the ſea ſhore.

Mountains.] The Tryon and Hogback mountains, are 220 miles north-weſt from Charleſton, in latitude 35°, and longitude 6° 30′ from Philadelphia. The elevation of theſe mountains above their baſe is 3840 feet; and above the ſea-coaſt 4640.—The aſcent from the ſea-ſhore being eight

eight times as great as the difference between the ſphere of the horizon and that of an even plane, there is exhibited from the top of theſe mountains an extenſive view of this ſtate, North-Carolina and Georgia. And as no object intervenes to obſtruct the view, a man with *teleſcopic* eyes, might diſcern veſſels at ſea. The mountains weſt and north-weſt riſe much higher than theſe, and from a ridge, which divides the waters of Tenneſſee and Santee rivers.

Harbours.] The only harbours of note are thoſe of Charleſton, Port Royal and George-town. Charleſton harbour is ſpacious, convenient and ſafe. It is formed by the junction of Aſhly and Cooper rivers. Its entrance is guarded by Fort Johnſon. Twelve miles from the city is a bar, over which are four channels: One by the name of Ship Channel, has 18 feet water; another 16½, the other two are for ſmaller veſſels. The tide riſes about 9 feet. Port Royal has an excellent harbour, of ſufficient extent to contain the largeſt fleet in the world.

The entrance into George-town harbour is impaſſable to large ſhips, which is a great obſtruction to the growth of that place.

Iſlands.] The ſea coaſt is bordered with a chain of ſine ſea iſlands, around which the ſea flows, opening an excellent inland navigation for the conveyance of produce to market.

The principal of theſe are James Iſland, oppoſite Charleſton, on which are about 50 families.——Further ſouth-weſt is John's Iſland, larger than James. Next is Ediſto. Each of theſe iſlands has a Preſbyterian church.

On the other ſide of St. Helena ſound, from Ediſto, lies a cluſter of iſlands, one of the largeſt of which is Port Royal. Adjacent to Port Royal lie St. Helena, Ladies Iſland, Paris Iſland, and the Hunting Iſlands, 5 or 6 in number, bordering on the ocean, ſo called from the number of deer and other wild game found upon them; and over acroſs Broad river, is Hilton Head Iſland. All theſe iſlands, except the three firſt mentioned, belong to St. Helena pariſh.

The ſoil and natural growth of theſe iſlands are not noticeably different from the adjacent main land. They are in general favorable for the culture of indigo.

Civil Diviſions.] The proprietors who firſt ſent ſettlers to Carolina, divided it into counties and pariſhes. The counties were generally named after the proprietors. No county courts, however, were eſtabliſhed, and this diviſion, though for a long time kept up in the province, became in a great meaſure obſolete, previous to the revolution. Since the revolution, county courts have been eſtabliſhed, and this ſtate is now divided into diſtricts and counties—and the counties are ſubdivided; in the lower country, into pariſhes—and in the upper country, into ſmaller or voting diſtricts.

There are ſeven diſtricts, in which are 35 counties, as follow:

Counties.

	Counties.
BEAUFORT DISTRICT, on the sea coast, between Combahee and Savannah rivers. Chief town BEAUFORT.	Hilton,
	Lincoln,
	Granville,
	Shrewſbury.
CHARLESTON DISTRICT between Santee and Combahee rivers. Chief town CHARLESTON.	Charleſton,
	Waſhington,
	Marion,
	Berkeley,
	Colleton,
	Bartholomew.
GEORGE-TOWN DISTRICT, between Santee river and North-Carolina. Chief town GEORGE-TOWN.	Winyah,
	Williamſburg,
	Kingſton,
	Liberty.
CHERAWS DISTRICT, weſt of George town diſtrict. Chief town ——.	Marlborough
	Cheſterfield,
	Darlington.

	Counties
ORANGE DISTRICT, weſt of Beaufort diſtrict. Chief town ORANGEBURG.	Lewiſburg,
	Orange,
	Lexington,
	Winton.
CAMDEN DISTRICT, weſt of George-town diſtrict. Chief town CAMDEN.	Clarendon,
	Richland,
	Fairfield,
	Cleremont,
	Lancaſter,
	York,
	Cheſter.
NINETY SIX DISTRICT, comprehends all other parts of the ſtate, not included in the other diſtrict, Ch. t. CAMBRIDGE.	Abbeville,
	Edgefield,
	Newbury,
	Union,
	Laurens,
	Spartenburgh,
	Greenville.

The

The committee appointed by act of assembly to divide the districts into counties, were directed to lay them as nearly 40 miles square as was practicable, due regard being paid to situations, natural boundaries, &c.

As the lower country was originally settled by people from Europe under the proprietary government and influence, all the then counties were divided into parishes. And even now, although the old counties are done away, the boundaries altered, and new ones established, the division of parishes subsists in the three lower districts, the people choose their senators and representatives by parishes, as formerly. But in the middle and upper districts, which were settled by people of various nations from Europe, but principally by northern emigrants, parishes are hardly known, except perhaps in Orangeburgh district. in these districts the people vote in small divisions as convenience dictates.

Chief Towns.] CHARLESTON is the only considerable town in South Carolina. It is situated on the tongue of land which is formed by the confluence of Ashley and Cooper rivers, which are large and navigable. These rivers mingle their waters immediately below the town, and form a spacious and convenient harbour, which communicates with the ocean at Sullivan's island, seven miles south-east of the town. In these rivers the tide rises, in common, about five feet. The continued agitation which this occasions in the waters which almost surround Charleston, and the refreshing sea breezes which are regularly felt, render Charleston more healthy than any part of the low country in the southern states. On this account it is the resort of great numbers of gentlemen, invalids from the West India Islands, and of the rich planters from the country, who come here to spend the *sickly months*, as they are called, in quest of health and of the social enjoyments which the city affords. And in no part of America are the social blessings enjoyed more rationally and liberally than in Charleston. Unaffected hospitality—affability—ease in manners and address—and a disposition to make their guest welcome, easy, and pleased with themselves, are characteristics of the respectable people of Charleston.

The land on which the town is built is flat and low, and the water brackish and unwholesome. The inhabitants are obliged to raise banks of earth as barriers to defend themselves against the higher floods of the sea. The streets from east to west extend from river to river, and running in a straight line not only open beautiful prospects each way, but afford excellent opportunities, by means of subterranean drains, for removing all nuisances and keeping the city clean and healthy. These streets are intersected by others, nearly at right angles, and throw the town into a number of squares, with dwelling houses in front, and office-houses, and little gardens behind. Some of the streets are conveniently wide, but most of them are much too narrow, especially for so populous a city, in so warm a climate. Besides there being a nursery for various diseases from their confined situation, they have been found extremely inconvenient in case of fires, the destructive effects of which have been frequently felt in this city. The houses which have been lately built, are brick, with tiled roofs. Some of the buildings in Charleston are elegant, and most of them are neat, airy, and well finished. The public buildings are an exchange, state house, armoury, poor house, two large churches for Episcopalians, two for Congregationalists or Independents, one for Scotch Presbyterians,

two

two for the Baptiſts, one for the German Lutherans, one for the Methodiſts, one for French Proteſtants—beſides a meeting houſe for Quakers, and two Jewiſh ſynagogues, one for the Portugueſe, the other for the German Jews. There are upwards of a thouſand Roman Catholics in Charleſton, but they have no public building for worſhip.

In 1787, there were 1600 houſes in this city, and 9600 white inhabitants, and 5400 negroes; and what evinces the healthineſs of the place, upwards of 200 of the white inhabitants were above 60 years of age.

Charleſton was incorporated in 1783, and divided into 13 wards, who chooſe as many wardens, who, from among themſelves, elect an intendant of the city. The intendant and wardens from the city council, who have power to make and enforce bye laws for the regulation of the city.

BEAUFORT, on Port Royal iſland, is the ſeat of juſtice in Beaufort diſtrict. It is a pleaſant, thriving little town, of about 50 or 60 houſes, and 200 inhabitants, who are diſtinguiſhed for their hoſpitality and politeneſs.

GEORGE-TOWN, the ſeat of juſtice in George-town diſtrict, ſtands on a ſpot of land near the junction of a number of rivers, which, when united in one broad ſtream, by the name of Pedee, fall into the ocean 12 miles below the town. Beſides theſe, are Puryſburgh, Jackſonſborough, Orangeburgh, Wynnſborough, Cambridge, Camden and Columbia, the intended capital of the ſtate, which are all inconſiderable villages of from 30 to 60 dwelling houſes.

General face of the Country.] The whole ſtate, to the diſtance of 80 miles from the ſea, is level, and almoſt without a ſtone. In this diſtance, by a gradual aſſent from the ſea coaſt, the land riſes about 190 feet. Here commences a curiouſly uneven country. The traveller is conſtantly aſcending or deſcending little ſand hills, which nature ſeems to have diſunited in a frolic. If a pretty high ſea were ſuddenly arreſted, and transformed into ſand hills, in the very form the waves exiſted at the moment of transformation, it would preſent the eye with juſt ſuch a view as is here to be ſeen. Some little herbage, and a few ſmall pines grow even on this ſoil. The inhabitants are few, and have but a ſcanty ſubſiſtence on corn and ſweet potatoes, which grow here tolerably well. This curious country continues for 60 miles, till you arrive at a place called *The Ridge*, 140 miles from Charleſton. This ridge is a remarkable tract of high ground, as you approach it from the ſea, but level as you advance north-weſt from its ſummit. It is a fine, high, healthy belt of land, well watered, and of good ſoil, and extends from the Savannah to Broad river, in about 6° 30′ weſt longitude from Philadelphia. Beyond this ridge, commences a country exactly reſembling the northern ſtates. Here hills and dales, with all their verdure and variegated beauty, preſent themſelves to the eye. Wheat fields, which are rare in the low country begin to grow common. Here Heaven has beſtowed its bleſſings with a moſt bounteous hand. The air is much more temperate and healthful than nearer to the ſea. The hills are covered with valuable woods—the vallies watered with beautiful rivers, and the fertility of the ſoil is equal to every vegetable production. This, by way of diſtinction, is called the upper country, where are different modes and different articles of cultivation; where

where the manners of the people, and even their language, have a different tone. The land ſtill riſes by a gradual aſcent; each ſucceeding hill overlooks that which immediately precedes it, till, having advanced 220 miles in a north-weſt direction from Charleſton, the elevation of the land above the ſea-coaſt is found by menſuration, to be about 800 feet. Here commences a mountain country, which continues riſing to the weſtern terminating point of this ſtate.

Soil and productions.] The ſoil may be divided into four kinds, firſt, the *Pine-barren*, which is valuable only for its timber. Interſperſed among the pine-barren, are tracts of land free of timber, and of every kind of growth but that of graſs. Theſe tracts are called *Savannas*, conſtituting a ſecond kind of ſoil, good for grazing. The third kind is that of the *ſwamps* and *low grounds* on the rivers, which is a mixture of black loam and fat clay, producing naturally canes in great plenty, cypreſs, bays, &c. In theſe ſwamps rice is cultivated, which conſtitutes the ſtaple commodity of the ſtate. The *high-lands*, commonly known by the name of oak and hiccory lands, conſtitute the fourth kind of ſoil. The natural growth is oak, hiccory, walnut, pine, and locuſt. On theſe lands, in the low country, are cultivated, Indian corn, principally; and in the back country, beſides theſe, they raiſe tobacco in large quantities, wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, cotton, and ſilk*.

At the diſtance of about 110 miles from the ſea, the river ſwamps for the culture of rice terminate, and the high lands extend quite to the rivers, and form banks in ſome places, ſeveral hundred feet high from the ſurface of the water, and afford many extenſive and delightful views. Theſe high banks are interwoven with layers of leaves and different colored earth, and abound with quarries of free ſtone, pebbles, flint, chryſtals, iron ore in abundance, ſilver, lead, ſulphur and coarſe diamonds.

It is curious to obſerve the gradations from the ſea coaſt to the upper country, with reſpect to the produce—the mode of cultivation, and the cultivators. On the iſlands upon the ſea-coaſt, and for 40 or 50 miles back (and on the rivers much farther) the cultivators are all ſlaves. No white man, to ſpeak generally, ever thinks of ſettling a farm, and improving it for himſelf without negroes. If he has no negroes, he hires himſelf as overſeer, to ſome rich planter, who has more than he can or will attend to, till he can purchaſe for himſelf. The articles cultivated, are corn and potatoes, which are food for the negroes; rice and indigo, for exportation. The ſoil is cultivated almoſt wholly by manual labor. The plough, till ſince the peace, was ſcarcely uſed, and prejudices ſtill exiſt againſt it.—In the middle ſettlements negroes are not ſo numerous. The maſter attends perſonally to his own buſineſs, and is glad to uſe the plough to aſſiſt his negroes, or himſelf, when he has no negroes. The ſoil is not rich enough for rice. It produces moderately good indigo weed; no tobacco is raiſed for exportation. The farmer is contented to raiſe corn, potatoes, oats, poultry, and a little wheat.—In the upper country, many men have a few negroes, and a few have many; but generally ſpeaking, the farmers have none, and depend, like the inhabitants of the

* *See the nature of the ſoil more particularly deſcribed under this head in the deſcription of Georgia.*

northern

northern ſtates, upon the labor of themſelves and families for ſubſiſtence. The plough is uſed almoſt wholly. Indian corn, wheat, rye, potatoes, &c. are raiſed for food, and large quantities of tobacco, and ſome wheat and indigo for exportation.

Manufactures.] In the middle, and eſpecially in the upper country, the people are obliged to manufacture their own cotton and woollen clothes. and moſt of their huſbandry tools; but in the lower country the inhabitants for theſe articles depend almoſt entirely on their merchants. It is a fact to be lamented, that manufactures and agriculture, in this and the two adjoining ſtates, are yet in the firſt ſtages of improvement.

Conſtitution.] In 1776, a temporary form of government was agreed to by the freemen of South Carolina, aſſembled in congreſs; and on the 19th of March, 1778, it was eſtabliſhed by an act of the legiſlature. By this conſtitution, the legiſlative authority is veſted in a general aſſembly, to conſiſt of two diſtinct bodies, a ſenate, and a houſe of repreſentatives. Theſe two bodies, jointly by ballot, at their every firſt meeting, chooſe a governor and lieutenant governor, both to continue for two years, and a privy council. (to conſiſt of the lieutenant-governor and eight other perſons) all of the proteſtant religion.

The governor and lieutenant-governor muſt have been reſidents in the ſtate for 10 years, and the members of the privy-council 5 years, preceding their election, and poſſeſs a freehold in the ſtate of the value of at leaſt ten thouſand pounds currency, clear of debt.

The governor is eligible but two years in ſix years, and is veſted with the executive authority of the ſtate.

The ſenate are choſen by ballot, biennially, on the laſt Monday in November—thirteen make a quorum. A ſenator muſt be of the proteſtant religion—muſt have attained the age of 30 years—muſt have been a reſident in the ſtate at leaſt 5 years: and muſt poſſeſs a freehold in the pariſh or diſtrict for which he is elected, of at leaſt £.2000 currency, clear of debt.

The laſt Monday in November, biennially, two hundred and two perſons are to be choſen in different parts of the ſtate, (equally proportioned) to repreſent the freemen of the ſtate in the general aſſembly, who are to meet with the ſenate, annually, at the ſeat of government, on the firſt Monday in January.

All free whitemen of 21 years of age, of one year's reſidence in the ſtate, and poſſeſſing freeholds of 50 acres of land each, or what ſhall be deemed equal thereto, are qualified to elect repreſentatives.

Every fourteen years the repreſentation of the whole ſtate is to be proportioned in the moſt equal and juſt manner, according to the particular and comparative ſtrength and taxable property of the different parts of the ſame.

All money bills for the ſupport of government, muſt originate in the houſe of repreſentatives, and ſhall not be altered or amended by the ſenate, but may be rejected by them*.

Miniſters of the goſpel are ineligible to any of the civil offices of the ſtate.

* *This is in imitation of the Britiſh conſtitution, while the reaſons for this imitation do not exiſt.*

The

The power of impeaching officers of the ſtate is veſted in the houſe of repreſentatives.

The lieutenant-governor, and a majority of the privy-council, exerciſe the powers of a court of chancery.

Juſtices of the peace are nominated by the ſenate and repreſentatives, jointly, and commiſſioned by the governor during pleaſure.

All other judicial officers are choſen by the ſenate and repreſentatives, jointly and (except the judges of the court of chancery) commiſſioned by the governor during good behaviour.

All religious ſocieties, who acknowledge that there is one God—a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments, and that God is to be publickly worſhipped, are freely tolerated.

The liberty of the preſs is to be preſerved inviolate.

No part of this conſtitution is to be altered, without a notice of ninety days being previouſly given, nor then, without the conſent of a majority of the members of the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives.

Laws.] The laws of this ſtate have nothing in them of a particular nature, excepting what ariſes from the permiſſion of ſlavery. The evidence of a ſlave cannot be taken againſt a white man, and the maſter who kills his ſlave is not puniſhable, otherwiſe than by a pecuniary mulct, and 12 months impriſonment.

In an act of this ſtate for regulating and fixing the ſalaries of ſeveral officers, paſſed in March 1787, it was ordered that the governor ſhould receive a ſalary of £. 900 ſterling.

Four aſſociate judges,	£. 500 each	2000	
Attorney general,		200	
Three delegates to congreſs,	£. 600 each	1800	
Auditor of public accounts,		373 :	6 : 8
Commiſſioners of the treaſury,		571 :	8 : 8
Other ſalaries of public officers mentioned in ſaid act to the amount of		2,114 :	0 : 0
Total,		£.7,958 :	15 : 4

State of Literature.] Gentlemen of fortune, before the late war, ſent their ſons to Europe for education. During the war and ſince, they have generally ſent them to the middle and northern ſtates. Thoſe who have been at this expence in educating their ſons, have been but comparatively few in number, ſo that the literature of the ſtate is at a low ebb. Since the peace, however, it has begun to flouriſh. There are ſeveral flouriſhing academies in Charleſton—one at Beaufort, on Port Royal iſland—and ſeveral others in different parts of the ſtate. Three colleges have lately been incorporated by law—one at Charleſton, which is merely nominal—one at Winnſborough, in the diſtrict of Camden—the other at Cambridge, in the diſtrict of Ninety-ſix. The public and private donations for the ſupport of theſe three colleges, were originally intended to have been appropriated jointly, for the erecting and ſupporting of one reſpectable college. The diviſion of theſe donations has fruſtrated this deſign. The Mount Sion college, at Winnſborough, is ſupported by a reſpectable ſociety

ciety of gentlemen, who have long been incorporated. This inſtitution flouriſhes, and bids fair for uſefulneſs. The college at Cambridge is no more than a grammar ſchool. That the literature of this ſtate might be put upon a reſpectable footing, nothing is wanting but a ſpirit of enterprize among its wealthy inhabitants.

Indians.] The Catabaws are the only nation of Indians in this ſtate. They have but one town, called Catabaw, ſituated on Catabaw river, in latitude 34° 49′, on the boundary line between North and South-Carolina, and contains about 450 inhabitants, of which about 150 are fighting men.

Religion.] The people of this ſtate, by the conſtitution, are to enjoy the right of electing their own paſtors or clergy; and what is peculiar to this ſtate, the miniſter, when choſen, is required by the conſtitution, to ſubſcribe to the following declaration, (viz.) 'That he is determined, by God's grace, out of the holy ſcriptures, to inſtruct the people committed to his charge, and to teach nothing (as required of neceſſity to eternal ſalvation) but that which he ſhall be perſuaded may be concluded and proved from the ſcripture; that he will uſe both public and private admonitions, as well to the ſick as to the whole, within his cure, as need ſhall require, and occaſion ſhall be given, and that he will be diligent in prayers, and in reading of the holy ſcriptures, and in ſuch ſtudies as help to the knowledge of the ſame—that he will be diligent to frame his own ſelf and family according to the doctrine of Chriſt, and to make both himſelf and them, as much as in him lieth, wholeſome examples and patterns to the flock of Chriſt; that he will maintain and ſet forward as much as he can, quietneſs, peace, and love among all people, and eſpecially among thoſe that are or ſhall be committed to his charge.'

Since the revolution, by which all denominations were put on an equal footing—there have been no diſputes between different religious ſocieties. They all agree to differ.

The upper parts of this ſtate are ſettled chiefly by Preſbyterians, Baptiſts and Methodiſts. From the moſt probable calculations, it is ſuppoſed that the religious denominations of this ſtate, as to numbers, may be ranked as follows: Preſbyterians, including the Congregational and Independent churches—Epiſcopalians, Baptiſts, Methodiſts, &c.

Population and Character.] The beſt eſtimate of the inhabitants in this ſtate which has been made, fixes their number at 80,000 white people, and as many negroe —ſome ſay there is 120,000 negroes in this ſtate; but no actual cenſus has lately been made. On the ſea coaſt there are many more ſlaves than freemen. The bulk of the white population is in the weſtern parts of the ſtate. There is no peculiarity in the manners of the inhabitants of this ſtate, except what ariſes from the miſchievous influence of ſlavery; and in this, indeed, they do not differ from the inhabitants of the other ſouthern ſtates. Slavery, by exempting great numbers from the neceſſities of labour, leads to luxury, diſſipation and extravagance. The abſolute authority which is exerciſed over their ſlaves, too much favours a haughty, ſupercilious behaviour. A diſpoſition to obey the chriſtian precept, 'To do to others as we would that others ſhould do unto us,' is not cheriſhed by a daily exhibition of many made for one. The Carolinians ſooner arrive at maturity, both in their bodies and minds, than the natives of colder climates. They poſſeſs a natural quickneſs and vivacity of genius

genius ſuperior to the inhabitants of the north; but too generally want that enterprize and perſeverance, which are neceſſary for the higheſt attainments in the arts and ſciences. They have, indeed, few motives to enterprize. Inhabiting a fertile country, which by the labor of the ſlaves, produces plentifully, and creates affluence—in a climate which favors indulgence, eaſe, and a diſpoſition for convivial pleaſures, they too generally reſt contented with barely knowledge enough to tranſact the common affairs of life. There are not a few inſtances, however, in this ſtate, in which genius has been united with application, and the effects of their union have been happily experienced, not only by this ſtate, but by the United States.

The wealth produced by the labor of the ſlaves, furniſhes their proprietors with the means of hoſpitality; and no people in the world uſe theſe means with more liberality. Many of the inhabitants ſpare no pains nor expence in giving the higheſt poliſh of education to their children, by enabling them to travel, and by other means unattainable to thoſe who have but moderate fortunes.

The Carolinians are generally affable and eaſy in their manners, and polite and attentive to ſtrangers. The ladies want the bloom of the north, but have an engaging ſoftneſs and delicacy in their appearance and manners, and many of them poſſeſs the polite and elegant accompliſhments.

Hunting is the moſt faſhionable amuſement in this ſtate. At this the country gentlemen are extremely expert, and with ſurpriſing dexterity purſue their game through the woods. Theatrical exhibitions have been prohibited in Charleſtown. Gaming of all kinds is more diſcountenanced among faſhionable people in this, than in any of the ſouthern ſtates. Twice a year, ſtatedly, a claſs of ſportive gentlemen, in this and the neighbouring ſtates, have their horſe-races. Bets of ten and fifteen hundred guineas are ſometimes laid on theſe occaſions.

There is no inſtance, perhaps, in which the richer claſs of people treſpaſs more on propriety than in the mode of conducting their funerals. That a decent reſpect be paid to the dead, is the natural dictate of refined humanity; but this is not done by ſumptuous and extenſive entertainments, ſplended decorations, and pompous ceremonies, which a miſguided faſhion has here introduced and rendered neceſſary. In Charleſton and other parts of the ſtate, no perſons attend a funeral any more than a wedding, unleſs they are particularly invited. Wine, punch, and all kinds of liquors, tea, coffee, cake, &c. in profuſion, are handed round on theſe ſolemn occaſions. In ſhort, one would ſuppoſe that the religious proverb of the wiſe man, 'It is better to go to the houſe of mourning than to the houſe of feaſting,' would be unintelligible and wholly inapplicable here, as it would be difficult to diſtinguiſh the houſe of mourning from the houſe of feaſting

The Jews in Charleſton, among other peculiarities in burying their dead, have this: After the funeral dirge is ſung, and juſt before the corpſe is depoſited in the grave, the coffin is opened, and a ſmall bag of earth, taken from the grave, is carefully put under the head of the deceaſed; then ſome powder, ſaid to be earth brought from Jeruſalem, and carefully kept for this purpoſe, is taken and put upon the eyes of the corpſe, in token of their remembrance of the holy land, and of their expectations of returning thither in God's appointed time.

Military Strength.] There are about 20,000 fighting men in this ſtate. About 10 men are kept to guard Fort Johnſon, on James Iſland, at the entrance of Charleſton harbour, by which no veſſel can paſs, unleſs the maſter or mate make oath that there is no malignant diſtemper on board. Theſe 10 men are the only ſtanding force of this ſtate. The militia laws, enacting that every freeman between 16 and 50 years of age, ſhall be prepared for war, have been but indifferently obeyed ſince the peace.

Public Revenue and Expences.] The public revenue of this ſtate is, nominally, about £.90,000 ſterling. But a great part of this is either not collected, or paid in public ſecurities, which are much depreciated. The expences of government are about £.16,000 ſterling.

Mode of Levying Taxes.] There is a general impoſt of 3 per cent. and other impoſts varying from 3 to 10 per cent. payable on the importation of merchandize from foreign countries. The great bulk of the revenue of the ſtate, is raiſed by a tax on lands and negroes. The lands, for the purpoſe of being taxed according to their value, are divided into three grand diviſions; the firſt reaches from the ſea coaſt to the extent of the flowing of the tides; the ſecond from theſe points to the falls of the rivers; and thence to the utmoſt verge of the weſtern ſettlement makes the third. Theſe grand diviſions, for the ſake of more exactly aſcertaining the value of the lands, are ſubdivided into 21 different ſpecies. The moſt valuable of which is eſtimated at ſix pounds, and the leaſt valuable at one ſhilling per acre. One per cent. on the value thus eſtimated, is levied from all granted lands in the ſtate. The collection of taxes is not annexed to the office of ſheriff, but is committed to particular gentlemen appointed for that purpoſe.

Eſtimate of Damages ſuſtained in the late War.] The damages which this ſtate ſuſtained in the late war are thus eſtimated. The two entire crops of 1780 and 1781, both of which were uſed by the Britiſh—The crop of 1782 taken by the Americans—About 25,000 negroes—Many thouſands of pounds worth of plate, and houſhold furniture in abundance.—The villages of George-town and Camden burnt——The loſs to the citizens directly by the plunderings and devaſtations of the Britiſh army—and indirectly by American impreſſments, and by the depreciation of the paper currency, together with the heavy debt of £.1,200,000 ſterling, incurred for the ſupport of the war, in one aggregate view, make the price of independance to South Carolina, excluſive of the blood of its citizens, upwards of £.3,000,000 ſterling.

State of the Practice of Phyſic.] The practice of Phyſic throughout the ſtate, is reputable, particularly in Charleſton, which contains more regular bred phyſicians, in proportion to its numbers, than any city in the United States. It is to be lamented, however, that, in common with the other parts of America, extraordinary merit is unrewarded, and perſons of real ſkill rarely fare better, and ſometimes worſe, than thoſe of moderate talents and contracted education.

Commerce.

Commerce.] The little attention that is paid to manufactures occaſions a vaſt conſumption of foreign imported articles; but the quantities and value of their exports generally leave a balance in favour of the ſtate, except when there are large importations of negroes. The following liſt of exports, which was copied from the cuſtom-houſe books in Charleſton, will give an accurate and ſatisfactory idea of the variety and quantity of articles exported from the port of Charleſton.

General EXPORTS from Charleſton, South-Carolina, from November, 1786, to November, 1787.

Barrels rice,	61,745	Logs cedar,	2,726
Half-barrels ditto,	6,882	Plank,	514
Hogſheads tobacco,	5,493	Feet cedar,	8,800
Caſks indigo,	2,783	Buſhels corn,	29,088
Hogſheads deer ſkins,	205	Firkins butter,	1,111
Bales ditto,	256	Barrels beef,	362
Racoon ſkins,	767	Barrels pork,	176
Otter ſkins,	12	Boxes ſoap,	259
Hogſhead Beaver ſkins,	1	Boxes candles,	119
Bale, ditto,	1	Caſks bees-wax,	42
Box, ditto,	1	Caſks ground nuts,	51
Pounds, ditto,	875	Hogſheads Pink root,	4
Bag wool,	1	Caſks ſnake ditto,	28
Bags cotton,	33	Boxes ginſeng ditto,	3
Pounds ditto,	131	Bales ſarſaparilla,	10
Bags feathers,	31	Caſks ditto,	15
Pounds ditto,	600	Bundles ditto,	57
Barrels pitch,	1,904	Hides leather,	3,308
Barrels tar,	2,230	Sides ditto,	4,212
Barrels roſin,	739	Caſks bacon hams,	13
Barrels turpentine,	3,707	Pounds ditto,	3,455
Barrels ſpirits of turpentine,	32	Caſks oranges,	21
Feet lumber,	1,057,600	Bricks,	97,000
Feet ſhingles,	3,689,600	Reeds,	121,800
Feet ſtaves,	1,023,700	Horns,	6,900

AMERICAN produce imported into, and exported from, Charleſton.

Barrels flour,	8,783	Buſhels ditto,	1,238
Barrels bread,	735	Barrels onions,	36
Kegs ditto,	835	Bunches ditto,	14,624
Barrels fiſh,	965	Buſhels oats,	360
Quintals ditto,	110	Barrels apples,	72
Pounds ditto,	900	Barrels cyder,	56
Barrels potatoes,	360		

FOREIGN produce imported into, and exported from, Charleſton.

Hogſheads and puncheons, Rum, W. I. and N. E.	134	Caſks and barrels ditto,	121
		Pipes wine,	31
		Hogſheads ditto,	41

Caſks ditto,	- -	569	
Caſes ditto,	- -	358	
Pipes brandy,	- -	91	
Caſks ditto,	- -	88	
Caſes gin,	- -	1,561	
Hogſheads and caſks porter,		324	
Buſhels ſalt,	- -	16,332	
Hogſheads molaſſas,	-	560	
Hogſheads ſugar,	- -	32	
Cheſts ditto,	- -	375	
Caſks ditto,	- -	276	
Hogſheads coffee,	- -	3	
Caſks ditto,	- - -	182	
Bags ditto,	- - -	71	
Pounds ditto,	- -	5,500	
Hogſheads cocoa,	-	30	
Caſks ditto,	- -	94	
Bags ditto,	- -	106	
Bags pimento,	- -	143	
Tons logwood,	-	220¾	
Quintals ditto,	- -	300	
Pieces ditto,	- -	598	
Tons fuſtick,	- -	41¾	
Pieces ditto,	- -	2,078	
Tons lignum vitæ,	-	50¼	
Pieces ditto,	- -	300	
Pieces yellow ſanders,	-	449	
Pounds yellow ſanders,	-	6,450	
Pieces cane wood,	- -	20	
Pieces elephants teeth,	-	15	
Tons iron,	- -	22½	
Bars ditto,	- - -	229	
Tons coal,	- - -	220	
Tons Ruſſia hemp,	-	7	
Pounds ditto,	- -	11,200	
Cables,	- - -	6	
Coils cordoge,	- -	8	
Pounds ditto,	- -	10,000	
Anchors,	- -	6	
Hogſheads goods of different kinds exported,	-	58	
Caſks ditto,	- -	552	
Bales ditto,	- -	150	
Trunks ditto,	- -	148	
Caſes and boxes ditto,	-	490	
Crates ditto,	- -	102	
Bundles ditto,	- -	51	
Jugs and jars ditto,	- -	209	
Kegs ditto,	- - -	477	
Looſe pieces duck and Oſnaburg,		185	
Iron pots,	- -	512	
Grind and queen ſtones,	-	45	
Logs mahogany,	-	2,967	
Feet ditto,	- -	18,638	

VESSELS cleared out at the cuſtom-houſe, Charleſton, from November, 1786, to November, 1787, belonging to the following nations:

A M E R I C A.

40	Ships, meaſuring, - -	7,372	Tons.
3	Snows, ditto, - -	252	ditto.
95	Brigs, ditto, - -	9,824	ditto.
285	Sloops, ditto, - -	11,650	ditto.
312	Schooners, ditto, - -	12,433	ditto.
735	Veſſels.	41,531	Tons.

G R E A T B R I T A I N.

35	Ships, meaſuring - -	7,152	Tons.
4	Snows, ditto. - -	535	ditto.
46	Brigs, ditto, - -	5,632	ditto.
35	Sloops, ditto, - -	2,160	ditto.
28	Schooners, ditto, - -	1,288	ditto.
148	Veſſels. - -	16,787	Tons.

SPAIN.

SPAIN.

2	Brigs, measuring	273	Tons.
3	Sloops, ditto,	150	ditto.
39	Schooners, ditto,	650	ditto.
44	Vessels.	1,073	Tons.

FRANCE.

1	Snow, measuring	180	Tons.
3	Brigs, ditto,	235	ditto.
2	Sloops, ditto,	138	ditto.
2	Schooners, ditto,	162	ditto.
8	Vessels.	715	Tons.

UNITED NETHERLANDS.

1	Ship, measuring	290	Tons.
4	Brigs, ditto,	509	ditto.
5	Vessels.	799	Tons.

IRELAND.

1	Ship, measuring	218	Tons.
1	Brig, ditto,	101	ditto.
2	Vessels.	319	Tons.
1	Ship, Altona,	280	ditto.
1	Brig, Bremin,	193	ditto.
1	Brig, Denmark,	164	ditto.
1	Brig, Hamburg,	130	ditto.
1	Brig, Austria,	127	ditto.
947	Vessels, measuring	62,118	Tons.

The amount of the above exports in sterling money, has been estimated at £.505,279 19 5. In the most successful seasons there have been as many as 140,000 barrels of rice, and 1,300,000 pounds of indigo, exported in one year. The average price of rice, since the peace, has been from 12 to 14 shillings sterling the hundred; and of indigo, of the different sorts, 3 shillings and nine pence. Since the peace of 1783, in consequence of the depopulation of labourers, the bad state of the fields, and from a succession of bad seasons, the planters have made yearly but little more than half a common crop.

The following 'abstract' from a gentleman accurately informed on the subject, contains much useful information, and demands a place under this head.

GENEEAL

GENERAL ABSTRACT *of the* DEBT *of the State of* SOUTH CAROLINA,

Laft Balance.	*Suppoſed value of imports of Weſt India and European goods, as per entries, made at the treaſury office.*	*Amount of imports, with charges on dry goods, which are included in the European invoices, though not in the entries at the treaſury, the average of which is from 10 to 15 per cent.*	*Number of Negroes imported*	*Suppoſed neat proceeds of negroes, for which the vendor is here held accountable to the merchant in Europe.*	*One year's intereſt on the laſt balances.*
500,000	280,000	315,000	1003	40,471 1	25,000
745,775 1	700,000	787,500	4434	178,911 18	37,288 15
1,376,224 10	390,300	438,750	2768	111,688 16	68,811 4
1,624,613 14	280,000	315,000	532	21,466 4	81,230 14
4,246,613 5	1,650,000	1,856,000	8737	352,537 19	212,330 13

N. B. Vaſt quantities of goods imported in the above years, were, on account of foreigners, and ſold at verdue and otherwiſe, greatly under their firſt coſt in Europe, and many bad debts were contracted, both which ought to be deducted from the above balance of £.1,626,761 16, which deducted, it is computed, will reduce the balance to about £.1,400,000.—It is computed that the goods now left in ſtores, will amount to at leaſt £.500,000; but as there was likewiſe a conſiderable value at the evacuation, as well as debts contracted during the time the Britiſh held the city as a garriſon, no deduction can, with propriety, be made on that account.

Statement of the ſuppoſed future trade of the ſtate (allowing an annual impor-
of the private debts of the State,

Suppoſed laſt balances, deducting bad debts, on account of foreigners and ſpecie.	*Suppoſed value of imports of Weſt India and European goods, as per entries at the treaſury.*	*Charges on goods included in the invoices, and payable by the importer, though not taken notice of in the entries made in the treaſury.*	*Number of negroes imported*	*Neat proceeds of negroes payable in Europe.*	*Total amount of imports of negroes and goods including charges.*
1,250,000	200,000	25,000	1000	40,000	265,000
1,077,500	200,000	25,000	1000	40,000	265,000
896,375	200,000	25,000	1000	40,000	265,000
706,193 15	200,000	25,000	1000	40,000	265,000
506,503 8 9	200,000	25,000	1000	40,000	265,000
296,129 12	200,000	25,000	1000	40,000	265,000

from 1st January, 1783, to 1st January, 1787, both inclusive.

Total amount of the import of negroes, European and West-India goods, including charges.	*Totals, including Interest on last balance.*	*Periods.*	*Supposed value of exports here.*	*Supposed neat proceeds of Exports from hence.*	*Balances.*
355,471 1	880,471 1	1783 to 1784	178,370	134,696	745,775 1
966,411 18	1,749,475 14	1784 to 1785	466,564	373,251 4	1,376,224 10
550,438 16	1,995,574 10	1785 to 1786	463,576	370,860 16	1,624,613 14
336,466 4	2,042,310 12	1786 to 1787	519,436	415,548 16	1,626 761 16
2,208,787 19	6,667,731 13		1,617,946	1,294,356 16	5,373,375 1

N. B. The above exports are the produce of South-Carolina, and are exclusive of dry goods, rum, sugar, salt, coffee, &c. shipped to North Carolina, Georgia, East-Florida, Bahamas and Savannah, neither are the exports from George-town and Beaufort included therein, though at a moderate calculation all those articles for the above years may be estimated at

In the exports, specie is not included, though it is thought that the sum annually sent from hence is from £.150,000 to £.200,000 at least.

tation of 1000 negroes) to shew the period of time necessary for the extinguishment on the foregoing principles.

One years interest on the last balance.	*Totals, including interest on last balance.*	*Periods.*	*Supposed val. of exports here*	*Supposed neat proceeds of exports.*	*Balances.*
62,500	1,577,500	1 Jan. 87 to 1 Jan. 88		500,000	1,077,505
53,875	1,396,375	1 Jan. 88 to 1 Jan. 89		500,000	896,375
44,818 15	1,206,193 15	1 Jan. 89 to 1 Jan. 90		500,000	706,193 15
35,309 13 9	1,006,503 8 9	1 Jan. 90 to 1 Jan. 91		500,000	506,503 8 9
25,325 3 3	796,828 1 2	1 Jan. 91 to 1 Jan. 92		500,000	296,828 12
14,841 8	576,670	1 Jan. 92 to 1 Jan. 93		500,000	76,670

The

The balance of £,500,000 ſterling is the ſuppoſed amount of the foreign private debt of this ſtate at the commencement of the late war.

The foregoing calculations were made during the period the inſtalment act was in progreſs in the legiſlature, and is more unfavourable to the ſtate of the debt, than any other that was produced at that time, except ſome that were calculated with a view to extend the inſtalments as far as poſſible; but as the importation of negroes is prohibited for three years, the balance of debt at the end of that time, ſay March 1790, will be reduced to £.580,093.

It is to be obſerved that the value of exports in this calculation, are not rated higher than the nominal value here in the late bad ſeaſons; ſo that a few ſucceſsful crops would decreaſe the debt in a much greater degree.

Practice of the Law, Courts, &c.] From the firſt ſettlement of this country in 1669, to the year 1769, a ſingle court, called the Court of *Common Pleas*, was thought ſufficient to tranſact the judicial buſineſs of the ſtate. This court was invariably held at Charleſton, where all the records were kept, and all civil buſineſs tranſacted. As the province increaſed, inconveniences aroſe, and created uneaſineſs among the people.

To remedy theſe inconveniences, an act was paſſed in 1769, by which the province was divided into ſeven diſtricts, which have been mentioned. The Court of Common Pleas (inveſted with the powers of the ſame court in England) ſat four times a year in Charleſton. By the above mentioned act, the Judges of the Court of Common Pleas were empowered to ſit as Judges of the Court of Seſſions, inveſted with the powers of the Court of King's Bench, in England, in the criminal juriſdiction. The act likewiſe directed the Judges of the Courts of Common Pleas and Seſſions in Charleſton diſtrict, to divide, and two of the Judges to proceed on what is called the Northern Circuit, and the other two on the Southern Circuit, diſtributing juſtice in their progreſs. This was to be done twice in the year. This mode of adminiſtering juſtice continued till 1785, when, by the unanimous exertions of the two upper diſtricts, an act was paſſed, eſtabliſhing county courts in all the counties of the four diſtricts of Camden, Ninety-Six, Cheraws and Orangeburg; in the two laſt, however, the law has not taken effect. The County Courts are empowered to ſit four times in a year. Before the eſtabliſhment of county courts, the lawyers all reſided at Charleſton, under the immediate eye of government; and the Carolina bar was as pure and genteel as any in the United States. Since this eſtabliſhment, lawyers have flocked in from all quarters, and ſettled in different parts of the country, and law-ſuits have been multiplied beyond all former knowledge.

Hiſtory.] The reformation in France occaſioned a civil war between the Proteſtant and Catholic parties in that kingdom. During theſe domeſtic troubles Jaſper de Coligni, a principal commander of the Proteſtant army, fitted out two ſhips, and ſent them with a colony to America, under the command of Jean Ribaud, for the purpoſe of ſecuring a retreat from perſecution. Ribaud landed at the mouth of what is now called Albemarle river, in North-Carolina. This colony, after enduring incredible hardſhips, was extirpated by the Spaniards. No further attempts were made to plant a colony in this quarter, till the reign of Charles II. of England. Mention is, however, made of Sir Robert Heath's having obtained

tained a grant of Carolina, from Charles I. in 1630; but no settlements were made in consequence of this grant.

In 1662, after the restoration of Charles II. Edward, earl of Clarendon, and seven others, obtained a grant of all lands lying between the 31st and 36th degrees of north latitude.

A second charter, given two years after, enlarged their boundaries, and comprehended all that province, territory, &c. extending eastward as far as the north end of Currotuck inlet, upon a straight line westerly to Wyonoke creek, which lies within, or about latitude 36° 30′; and so west, in a direct line as far as the South sea; and south and westward as far as 29° north latitude, inclusive, and so west in direct lines to the South sea*. Of this large territory, the king constituted these eight persons absolute Lords Proprietors—investing them with all necessary powers to settle and govern the same.

Nothing was successfully done towards the settlement of this country till 1669. At this time the proprietors, in virtue of their powers, engaged the famous Mr. Locke to frame, for them, a constitution and body of laws. This constitution, consisting of 120 articles, was aristocratical, and though ingenious in theory, could never be successfully reduced to practice.

Three

* *Various causes have rendered it expedient to divide this extensive territory. In* 1788, *North-Carolina was erected into a seperate province. In* 1732, *George II. granted to certain trustees therein mentioned, and to their successors, a charter of all that part of Carolina lying between the most northern stream of Savannah river; westward, from the heads of these rivers, respectively in direct lines to the South sea, inclusively, with all islands within* 20 *leagues of the same.*

In 1761, *the governor of South-Carolina, conceiving that the lands lying south of Alatamaha river, belonged to South Carolina, granted several tracts of said land. Upon complaint being made by the government of Georgia, of the supposed encroachment on their territory, his majesty issued a proclamation in* 1763, *annexing to Georgia all the lands lying between the river Alatamaha and St. Mary's. The boundary line, dividing the two provinces (now states) of South-Carolina and Georgia, has been long the subject of controversy; the former claiming the lands lying between the North-Carolina line, and a line to run due west from the mouth of Tugulo and Keowee rivers; consequently that spot was the head of Savannah river; the latter contended that the source of Keowee river was to be considered as the head of Savannah river.*

For the purpose of settling this controversy, commissioners were appointed in April 1787, *by the contending states—vested with full powers to determine the controverted boundary, which they fixed as follows:*

'The most northern branch or stream of the river Savannah, from the sea or mouth of such stream, to the fork or confluence of the rivers now called Tugulo and Keowee and from thence the most northern branch or stream of the said river Tugulo till it intersects the northern boundary line of South-Carolina, if the said branch of Tugulo extends so far north, reserving all the islands in the

Three claſſes of nobility were to be eſtabliſhed, (viz.) barons, caſſiques and landgraves. The firſt to poſſeſs twelve—the ſecond twenty-four—the third forty-eight thouſand acres of land, which was to be unalienable.

In 1669, William Sayle, being appointed firſt governor of this country, embarked with a colony, and ſettled on the neck of land where Charleſton now ſtands.

During the continuance of the proprietary government, a period of 50 years (reckoning from 1669 to 1719) the colony was involved in perpetual quarrels. Oftentimes they were harraſſed by the Indians—ſometimes infeſted with pirates—frequently invaded by the French and Spaniſh fleets—conſtantly uneaſy under their injudicious government—and quarrelling with their governors.—But their moſt bitter diſſentions, were reſpecting religion. The Epiſcopalians, being more numerous than the Diſſenters, attempted to exclude the latter from a ſeat in the legiſlature. Theſe attempts were ſo far ſucceeded, as that the church of England, by a majority of votes, was eſtabliſhed by law. This illiberal act threw the colony into the utmoſt confuſion, and was followed by a train of evil conſequences, which proved to be the principal cauſe of the revolution. Notwithſtanding the act eſtabliſhing the church of England was repealed, tranquility was not reſtored to the colony. A change of government was generally deſired by the coloniſts. They found that they were not ſufficiently protected by their proprietary conſtitution, and effected a revolution about the year 1719, and the government became regal.

In 1728, the proprietors accepted £.22,500 ſterling from the crown, for the property and juriſdiction, except Lord Granville, who reſerved his 8th of the property, which has never yet been formally given up. At this time the conſtitution was new modelled, and the territory, limited by the original charter, was divided into North and South-Carolinas.

From this period the colony began to flouriſh. It was protected by a government, formed on the plan of the Engliſh conſtitution. Under the foſtering care of the mother country, its growth was aſtoniſhingly rapid. Between the years 1763 and 1765, the number of inhabitants was more than doubled. No one indulged a wiſh for a change in their political conſtitution, till the memorable ſtamp act, paſſed in 1765.

From this period till 1775, various attempts were made by Great-Britain to tax her colonies without her conſent. Theſe attempts were invariably oppoſed. The Congreſs, who met at Philadelphia this year,

the ſaid rivers Savannah and Tugulo to Georgia—but if the ſaid branch or ſtream of Tugulo does not extend to the north boundary line of South-Carolina, then a weſt line to the Miſſiſippi to be drawn from the head ſpring or ſource of the ſaid branch of Tugulo river, which extends to the higheſt northern latitude, ſhall for ever hereafter form the ſeparation limit and boundary between the ſtates of South-Carolina and Georgia.

It is ſuppoſed, in the map of this ſtate, that the moſt northern branch of Tugulo river, interſects the northern boundary of South-Carolina, which, if it be fact, brings the ſtate to a point in latitude 35°, *and about* 8° 35′ *weſt longitude from Philadelphia.*

unanimouſly

unanimouſly approved the oppoſition, and on the 19th of April, war commenced.

During the vigorous conteſt for independence, this ſtate was a great ſufferer. For three years it was the ſeat of the war. It feels and laments the loſs of many of its noble citizens. Since the peace, it has been emerging from that melancholy confuſion and poverty, in which it was generally involved by the devaſtations of a relentleſs enemy. The inhabitants are faſt multiplying by emigrations from other ſtates—the agricultural intereſts of the ſtate are reviving—commerce is flouriſhing—œconomy is becoming more faſhionable—and ſcience begins to ſpread her ſalutary influences among the citizens.—And ſhould the political difficulties, which have, for ſeveral years paſt, unhappily divided the inhabitants, ſubſide, as is hoped, upon the operation of the new government, this ſtate, from her natural commercial and agricultural advantages, and the abilities of her leading characters, promiſes to become one of the richeſt in the union.

GEORGIA.

SITUATION and EXTENT.

	Miles.		
Length	600	Between	31° and 35° North Latitude.
Breadth	250		5° and 16° Weſt Longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED eaſt, by the Atlantic Ocean; ſouth, by Eaſt and Weſt Floridas; weſt, by the river Miſſiſippi; north and north-eaſt, by South-Carolina, and by lands ceded to the United States by South-Carolina.

Civil diviſions.] That part of the ſtate which has been laid out in counties, is divided as follows:

Counties.	*Principal Towns.*
Chatham,	SAVANNAH, lat. 32° 5′.
Effingham,	Ebenezer.
Burke,	Wayneſburgh and Louiſville.
Richmond,	AUGUSTA.
Wilkes,	Waſhington.
Liberty,	Sanbury.
Glynn,	Brunſwick.
Camden,	St. Patrick's.
Waſhington,	Golphinton.
Greene,	Greenſburg.
Franklin,	

Before

Before the revolution, Georgia, like all the ſouthern ſtates, was divided into pariſhes; but this mode of diviſion is now aboliſhed, and that of counties has ſucceeded in its room.

Chief Towns.] The preſent ſeat of government in this ſtate is AUGUSTA. It is ſituated on the ſouth weſt bank of Savannah river, about 134 miles from the ſea, and 117 north-weſt of Savannah. The town, which contains not far from 200 houſes, is on a fine large plain; and as it enjoys the beſt ſoil, and the advantage of a central ſituation between the upper and lower counties, is riſing faſt into importance.

SAVANNAH, the former capital of Georgia, ſtands on a high ſandy bluff, on the ſouth ſide of the river of the ſame name, and 17 miles from its mouth. The town is regularly built in the form of a parallellogram, and, including its ſuburbs, contains 227 dwelling-houſes, one Epiſcopal church, a German Lutheran church, a Preſbyterian church, a Synagogue, and Court-houſe. The manner of its inhabitants, excluſive of the blacks, amount to about 830, ſeventy of whom are Jews.

In Savannah, and within a circumference of about 10 miles from it, there were, in the ſummer of 1787, about 2300 inhabitants. Of theſe, 192 were above 50 years of age, and all in good health. The ages of a lady and her ſix children, then living in the town, amounted to 385 years. This computation, which was actually made, ſerves to ſhew that Savannah is not really ſo unhealthy as has been commonly repreſented.

SUNBURY is a ſea port town, favoured with a ſafe and very convenient harbour. Several ſmall iſlands intervene, and partly obſtruct a direct view of the ocean; and, interlocking with each other, render the paſſage out to ſea, winding, but not difficult. It is a very pleaſant, healthy town, and is the reſort of the planters from the adjacent places of Midway and Newport, during the ſickly months. It was burnt by the Britiſh in the late war, but is now recovering its former populouſneſs and importance.

BRUNSWICK, in Glynn county, lat. 31° 10′, is ſituated at the mouth of Turtle river, at which place this river empties itſelf into St. Simon's ſound. Brunſwick has a ſafe harbour, and ſufficiently large to contain the whole of his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty's fleet; and the bar, at the entrance into it, has water deep enough for the largeſt veſſel that ſwims. The town is regularly laid out, but not yet built. From its advantageous ſituation, and from the fertility of the back country, it promiſes to be hereafter one of the firſt trading towns in Georgia.

FREDERICA, on the iſland of St. Simon, is nearly in lat. 31° 15′ north. It ſtands on an eminence, if conſidered with regard to the marſhes before it, upon a branch of Alatamaha river, which waſhes the weſt ſide of this agreeable iſland, and, after ſeveral windings, diſembogues itſelf into the ſea at Jekyl ſound: it forms a kind of bay before the town, and is navigable for veſſels of the largeſt burthen, which may lie along the wharf in a ſecure and ſafe harbour.

The town of LOUISVILLE, which is deſigned as the future ſeat of government in this ſtate, has lately been laid out on the bank of Ogeechee river, about 70 miles from its mouth, but is not yet built.

Rivers.] *Savannah* river forms a part of the diviſional line, which ſeparates this ſtate from South-Carolina. Its courſe is nearly from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt. It is formed principally of two branches, by the names

of

of Tugulo and Keowee, which ſpring from the mountain. It is navigable for large veſſels up to Savannah, and for boats of 100 feet keel as far as Auguſta. After riſing a fall juſt above this place, it is paſſable for boats to the mouth of Tugulo river. Tybee bar, at its entrance in lat. 31° 57′, has ſixteen feet water at half tide.

Ogeechee river, about eighteen miles ſouth of the Savannah, is a ſmaller river, and nearly parallel with it in its courſe.

Alatamaha *, about ſixty miles ſouth of Savannah river, is formed by the junction of the Okonee and Okemulgee branches. It is a noble river, but of difficult entrance. Like the Nile, it diſcharges itſelf by ſeveral mouths into the ſea.

Beſides theſe there is *Turtle river*, *Little Sitilla*, *Great Stilla*, *Crooked river*, and *St. Mary's*, which forms a part of the ſouthern boundary of the United States. St. Mary's river empties into Amelia ſound, lat. 30° 44′, and is navigable for veſſels of conſiderable burden for ninety miles. Its banks afford immenſe quantities of fine timber, ſuited to the Weſt-India market. Along this river, every four or five miles, are bluffs convenient for veſſels to haul and load.

The rivers in the middle and weſtern parts of this ſtate are, Apalachicola, which is formed by the Chatahouchee and Flint rivers, Mobile, Paſcagoula and Pearl rivers. All theſe running ſouthwardly, empty into the Gulph of Mexico. The forementioned rivers abound with a great variety of fiſh, among which are the mullet, whiting, cat, rock, trout, brim, white, ſhad and ſturgeon.

Climate, Diſeaſes, &c.] In ſome parts of this ſtate, at particular ſeaſons of the year, the climate cannot be eſteemed ſalubrious. In the low country near the rice ſwamps, bilious complaints and fevers of various kinds are pretty univerſal during the months of July, Auguſt and September, which for this reaſon, are called the ſickly months.

The diſorders peculiar to this climate, originate chiefly from the badneſs of the water, which is generally brackiſh, and from the noxious putrid vapours which are exhaled from the ſtagnant waters in the rice ſwamps. Beſides, the long continuance of warm weather produces a general relaxation of the nervous ſyſtem, and as they have no neceſſary labour to call them to exerciſe, a large ſhare of indolence is the natural conſequence; and indolence, eſpecially among a luxurious people, is ever the parent of diſeaſe. The immenſe quantities of ſpirituous liquors, which are uſed to correct the brackiſhneſs of the water, forms a ſpecies of intemperance, which too often proves ruinous to the conſtitution. Parents of infirm, ſickly habits, often, in more ſenſes than one, have children of their own likeneſs. A conſiderable part of the diſeaſes of the preſent inhabitants, may therefore be viewed as hereditary. I muſt add as a general obſervation, that to the three laſt mentioned cauſes may be aſcribed no inconſiderable part of thoſe diſorders which prevail in ſouthern climates.

Before the ſickly ſeaſon commences, many of the rich planters of this ſtate remove with their families to the ſea iſlands, or ſome elevated healthy ſituation, where they reſide three or four months, for the benefit of freſh air. In the winter and ſpring pleuriſies, peripneumonies, and other

* *Pronounced Oltamawhaw.*

inflammatory

inflammatory diſorders, occaſioned by ſudden and violent colds, are conſiderably common, and frequently fatal. Conſumptions, epilepſies, cancers, palſies and appolexies, are not ſo incident to the inhabitants of the ſouthern as northern climates.

The winters in Georgia are very mild and pleaſant. Snow is ſeldom or never ſeen. Vegetation is not frequently prevented by ſevere froſts. Cattle ſubſiſt tolerably well through the winter, without any other food than what they obtain in the woods and ſavannahs *, and are fatter in that ſeaſon than in any other. In the hilly country, which begins about 80 or 100 miles from the ſea, the air is pure and ſalubrious, and the water plenty and good. In the flat country there is here and there a ſpring only, which is clear and pretty good. Neither is the air ſo pure here as in the hilly country, being more confined, and leſs ſubject to agitations from the winds, and withal impregnated with putrid vapours from the rice ſwamps.

In the ſouth-eaſt parts of this ſtate, which lie within a few degrees of the torrid zone, the atmoſphere is kept in motion by impreſſions from the trade winds. This ſerves to purify the air, and render it fit for reſpiration; ſo that it is found to have a very advantageous effect on perſons of conſumptive habits.

Face of the Country.] The eaſtern part of the ſtate, between the mountains and the ocean, and the rivers Savannah and St. Mary's, a tract of country more than 120 miles from north to ſouth, and 40 or 50 eaſt and weſt, is entirely level, without a hill or a ſtone. At the diſtance of about 40 or 50 miles from the ſea-board, or ſalt-marſh, the lands begin to be more or leſs uneven. The ridges gradually riſe one above another into hills, and the hills ſucceſſively increaſing in height, till they finally terminate in mountains. That vaſt chain of mountains which commences with Katts Kill, near Hudſon's river, in the ſtate of New-York, known by the names of the Allegany and Apalachian mountains, terminate in this ſtate, about 60 miles ſouth of its northern boundary,—From the foot of this mountain ſpreads a wide extended plain, of the richeſt ſoil, and in a latitude and climate favourably adapted to the cultivation of moſt of the Eaſt-India productions.

Soil and Productions.] The ſoil and its fertility are various, according to ſituation and different improvement. The iſlands on the ſea-board, in their natural ſtate, are covered with a plentiful growth of pine, oak, and hiccory, live oak, and ſome red cedar. The ſoil is a mixture of ſand and black mould, making what is commonly called a grey ſoil. A conſiderable part of it, particularly that whereon grow the oak, hiccory and live oak, is very fertile, and yields on cultivation good crops of indigo, cotton, corn and potatoes. Theſe iſlands are ſurrounded by navigable creeks, between which and the main land is a large extent of ſalt marſh, fronting the whole ſtate, not leſs, on an average, than four or five miles in breadth, interſected with creeks in various directions, admitting, through the whole, an inland navigation between the iſlands and main-land, from the north-eaſtward to the ſouth-eaſtward corners of the ſtate. The ſoil of the main-land, adjoining the marſhes and creeks, is nearly of the ſame quality with

* *A* ſavannah *is a tract of ground covered with graſs, but without any trees or ſhrubs. They are often to be found in pine lands on the ſouthern ſtates.*

that

that of the iſlands; except that which borders on thoſe rivers and creeks which ſtretch far back into the country. On theſe, immediately after you leave the ſalts, begin the valuable rice ſwamps, which on cultivation, afford the preſent principal ſtaple of commerce. The moſt of the rice lands lie on rivers, which, as far as the tide flows, are called Tide-lands, or on creeks and particular branches of water, flowing in ſome deeper and lower parts of the lands, which are called inland-ſwamps, and extend back in the country from 15 to 25 miles, beyond which very little rice is planted, though it will grow exceedingly well, as experiment has proved, 120 miles back from the ſea. The intermediate lands, between theſe creeks and rivers, are of an inferior quality, being of a grey ſoil, covered chiefly with pine, and a ſort of wild graſs and ſmall reeds, which afford a large range of feeding ground for ſtock both ſummer and winter. Here and there, are interſperſed oak and hiccory ridges, which are of a better ſoil, and produce good crops of corn and indigo, but theſe are very little elevated above the circumjacent lands. The lands adjoining the rivers are nearly level, and, for a hundred miles in a direct line from the ſea, continue a breadth from 2 to 3 or 4 miles, and wherever, in that diſtance, you find a piece of high land that extends to the bank of the river on one ſide, you may expect to find the low or ſwamp ground proportionably wide on the oppoſite ſide of the river. This ſeems to be an invariable rule till you come to that part where the river cuts the mountains.

The ſoil between the rivers, after you leave the ſea board and the edge of the ſwamps, at the diſtance of 20 or 30 miles, changes from a grey to a red colour, on which grow plenty of oak and hiccory, with a conſiderable intermixture of pine. In ſome places it is gravelly, but fertile, and ſo continues for a number of miles, gradually deepening the reddiſh colour of the earth, till it changes into what is called the Mulatto ſoil, conſiſting of a black mould and red earth. The compoſition is darker or lighter according as there is a larger or ſmaller portion of the black or red earth in it. The mulatto lands are generally ſtrong, and yield large crops of wheat, tobacco, corn, &c. To this kind of land ſucceeds by turns a ſoil nearly black and very rich, on which grow large quantities of black walnut, mulberry &c. This ſucceſſion of different ſoils continues uniform and regular, though there are ſome large veins of all the different ſoils intermixed, and what is more remarkable, this ſucceſſion, in the order mentioned, ſtretches acroſs this ſtate nearly parallel with the ſea coaſt, and extends through the ſeveral ſtates, nearly in the ſame direction, to the banks of Hudſon's river. In this ſtate are produced by culture, rice, indigo, cotton, ſilk, (though not in large quantities) India corn, potatoes, oranges, figs, pomegranates, &c. Rice, at preſent, is the ſtaple commodity; and as a ſmall proportion only of the rice ground is under cultivation, the quantity raiſed in future muſt be much greater than at preſent. But the rapid increaſe of the inhabitants, chiefly by emigrations, whoſe attention is turned to the raiſing of tobacco, and the vaſt extent of land, with a richneſs of ſoil ſuited to the culture of that plant, renders it probable, that tobacco will ſhortly become the ſtaple of this ſtate.

The tobacco lands are equally well adapted to wheat, which may hereafter make an important article of commerce.

On

On the dry plains, grow large crops of ſweet potatoes, which are found to afford a wholeſome nouriſhment, and from which is made, by diſtillation, a kind of whiſky, tolerably good, but inferior to that made from rye. It is by properly macerating and waſhing this root, that a ſediment or ſtarch is made, which has obtained the name of Sago, and anſwers all the purpoſes of the India ſago.

Moſt of the tropical fruits would flouriſh in this ſtate with proper attention. The rice plant has been, and the tea plant, of which ſuch immenſe quantities are conſumed in the United States, may undoubtedly be, tranſplanted with equal advantage. The latitude, the ſoil, and the temperature of climate, all invite to make the experiment.

From many conſiderations, we may perhaps venture to predict, that the ſouth-weſtern part of this ſtate, and the parts of Eaſt and Weſt Florida, which lie adjoining, will, in a few years, become the vineyard of America.

Remarkable Springs.] In the county of Wilkes, within a mile and an half of the town of Waſhington, is a medicinal ſpring, which riſes from a hollow tree, four or five feet in length.—The inſide of the tree is covered with a coat of nitre, an inch thick, and the leaves around the ſpring are incruſted with a ſubſtance as white as ſnow.—It is ſaid to be a ſovereign remedy for the ſcurvy, ſcrofulous diſorders, conſumptions, gouts, and every other diſeaſe ariſing from humours in the blood.—A perſon, who had a ſevere rheumatiſm in his right arm, having, in the ſpace of ten minutes, drank two quarts of the water, experienced a momentary chill, and was then thrown into a perſpiration, which, in a few hours, left him entirely free from pain, and in perfect health.

This ſpring, ſituated in a fine, healthy part of the ſtate, in the neighbourhood of Waſhington, where are excellent accommodations, will no doubt prove a pleaſant and ſalutary place of reſort for invalids from the maritime and unhealthy parts of this and the neighbouring ſtates.

Curioſities.] About 90 miles from the ſea, as you advance towards the mountains, is a very remarkable bank of oyſter ſhells, of an uncommon ſize. They run in a direction nearly parallel with the ſea coaſt, in three diſtinct ridges near each other, which together occupy a ſpace of ſeven miles in breath. The ridges commence at Savannah river, and have been traced to the northern branches of the Alatamaha. This remarkable phenomenon has already been accounted for (page 49.) But by whatever means theſe ſhells were placed there, they are an inexhauſtible ſource of wealth and convenience to the neighbouring inhabitants, as from them they make their lime for building, and for the making of indigo, in which it is indiſpenſibly neceſſary.

Commerce, manufactures and agriculture.] The chief articles of export from this ſtate are rice, tobacco, indigo, ſago, lumber of various kinds, naval ſtores, leather, deer ſkins, ſnake root, myrtle, bees wax, corn, live ſtock, &c. The value of the exports from this ſtate in 1772, was £.121,677 ſterling. The number of veſſels employed this year, was 217, whoſe tonnage was 11,246, as will be ſeen in the following ſtatement.

Exports

Exports of Georgia, of the year 1755, 1760, 1765, 1770, *and* 1772.

	1755.	1760.	1765.	1770.	1772.
Barrels of rice,	2,399	3,283	12,224	22,129	23,540
Pounds of indigo,	4,508	11,746	16,019	22,336	11,882
Lbs. deer-skins,	49,995	65,765	200,695	284,840	213,475
Lbs. beaver skins,	120	2,298	1,800	1,469	632
Lbs. raw silk,	438	558	711	290	485
Lbs. tanned leather,	3,250	34,725	34,575	44,539	52,126
M. feet of timber,	387	283	1,879	1, 80[illegible]	2,163
Lbs. of tobacco,				13,447	176,732
M. staves,	203	80	661	466	188
M. shingles,	240	581	3,722	2,897	3,525
Oars and handspikes,		1,112	528	96	
Lbs. of hemp,				1,860	259
Bbls. turpentine,				103	40
Barrels of pitch,				80	364
Barrels of tar,	45	425	486	105	298
Barrels of pork,	20	8	394	521	628
Barrels of beef,	40	14	141	639	555
Hogs and shoats,	76		1,360	605	574
Bushels of corn,	600		7,805	13,598	11,444
Lbs of flour,					1,000
Bushels rough rice,	237	208	3,113	7,064	2,627
Bushels of peas,	400		300	601	140
Lbs. sago-powder,				18,405	14,435
Gals. orange-juice,				605	284
Lbs. of tallow,			100	1,079	
Lbs. of bees and myrtle-wax,	960	3,910	2,170	4,058	1,954
Horses,	48		209	345	257
Mules,				30	10
Steers and cows,	16		69	32	136

Value in sterling money, of the exports of Georgia, for eighteen years.

	£.		£.		£.
1755,	15,744	1761,	15,870	1767,	67,092
1756,	16,776	1762,	27,021	1768,	92,284
1757,	15,649	1763,	47,551	1769,	86,480
1758,	8,613	1764,	55,025	1770,	99,383
1759,	12,694	1765,	73,426	1771,	106,387
1760,	20,852	1766,	81,228	1772,	121,677

Statement of the number of vessels cleared out of Georgia, from 1755, *to* 1772.

	Square-rigged	Sloops.	tons.		Square-rigged	Sloops.	tons.
1755,	9	43	1,899	1769,	13	35	1,981
1756,	7	35	1,799	1760,	7	30	1,457
1757,	11	33	1,559	1761,	9	36	1,604
1758,	4	17	665	1762,	22	35	2,784

1763,	34	58	4,761	1768,	77	109	10,406
1764,	36	79	5,586	1769,	87	94	9,276
1765,	54	94	7,685	1770,	73	113	10,514
1766,	68	86	9,974	1771,	64	121	9,553
1767,	62	92	8,465	1772,	84	133	11,246

It is impoſſible to tell, with accuracy, what has been the amount of exports in one year ſince the peace, owing to the confuſion into which affairs of this kind were thrown into by the late war. In return for the numerated exports are imported, Weſt-India goods, teas, wines, various articles of clothing, and dry goods of all kinds.—From the northern ſtates, cheeſe, fiſh, potatoes, apples, cyder and ſhoes. The imports and exports of this ſtate are to and from Savannah, which has a fine harbour, and is a place where the principal commercial buſineſs of the ſtate is tranſacted. The manufactures of this ſtate have hitherto been very inconſiderable, if we except indigo, ſilk, and ſago. In 1765, 1084 lbs. of raw ſilk were exported. So large a quantity, however, has not been exported in any one year before or ſince. The culture of ſilk and the manufacture of ſago, are at preſent but little attended to. The people in the lower part of this ſtate manufacture none of their own clothing for themſelves or their negroes. For almoſt every article of their wearing apparel, as well as for their huſbandry tools, they depend on their merchants, who import them from Great-Britain and the northern ſtates. In the upper part of the country, however, the inhabitants manufacture the chief part of their clothing from cotton and from flax.

Military ſtrength.] In Georgia there are ſuppoſed to be about 8000 fighting men, between ſixteen and fifty years of age. Of theſe 2,340 are in Wilke's county, 600 in Chatham, and 424 in Liberty county.

Population, Character, Manners, &c.] No actual cenſus of the inhabitants of this ſtate has been taken ſince the war. Population, ſince the peace of 1783, has increaſed with a ſurpriſing rapidity. It is conjectured that emigrations from Europe, the northern ſtates, but principally from the back parts of Virginia, and the North and South Carolinas, have more than tripled the number of inhabitants in the laſt ſix years. From the moſt probable calculations there are, excluſive of Indians, upwards of 40,000 inhabitants in Georgia, of whom one third part at leaſt are ſlaves.

In the grand convention at Philadelphia, in 1787, the inhabitants of this ſtate were reckoned at 90,000, including three-fifths of 20,000 negroes. But from the number of militia, which has been aſcertained with a conſiderable degree of accuracy, there cannot be at moſt, more than half that number.

No general character will apply to the inhabitants at large. Collected from different parts of the world, as intereſt, neceſſity or inclination led them, their character and manners muſt of courſe partake of all the varieties, which diſtinguiſh the ſeveral ſtates and kingdoms from whence they came. There is ſo little uniformity, that it is difficult to trace any governing principles among them. An averſion to labour is too predominant, owing in part to the relaxing heat of the climate, and partly to the want of neceſſity to excite induſtry. An open and friendly hoſpitality, particularly to ſtrangers, is an ornamental characteriſtic of a great part of this people.

Their diverſions are various. With ſome, dancing is a favorite amuſement. Others take a fancied pleaſure at the gaming table, which, however, frequently terminates in the ruin of their happineſs, fortunes, and conſtitutions. In the upper counties, horſe racing and cock fighting prevail, two cruel diverſions imported from Virginia, and the Carolinas, from whence thoſe who practiſe them principally emigrated. But the moſt rational and univerſal amuſement is hunting; and for this Georgia is particularly well calculated, as the woods abound with plenty of deer, racoons, rabits, wild turkies, and other game; at the ſame time the woods are ſo thin and free from obſtructions, that you may generally ride half ſpeed in the chace, without danger. In this amuſement pleaſure and profit are blended. The exerciſe, more than any other, contributes to health, and fits for activity in buſineſs, and expertneſs in war; the game alſo affords them a palatable food, and the ſkins a profitable article of commerce.

Religion.] In regard to religion, politics and literature, this ſtate is yet in its infancy. In Savannah is an Epiſcopal church, a Preſbyterian church, a Synagogue, where the Jews pay their weekly worſhip, and a German Lutheran church, ſupplied occaſionally by a German miniſter from Ebenezer, where there is a large convenient Stone church, and a ſettlement of ſober induſtrious Germans of the Lutheran religion. In Auguſta they have an Epiſcopal church. In Midway is a ſociety of Chriſtians, eſtabliſhed on the congregational plan. Their meeting houſe was burnt by the Britiſh, 1778; ſince which they have erected a temporary one in its room. Their anceſtors emigrated in a colony from Dorcheſter, near Boſton, about the year 1700, and ſettled at a place named Dorcheſter, about 20 miles ſouth-weſt of Charleſton, South Corolina. In 1752, for the ſake of a better climate, and more land, almoſt the whole ſociety removed and ſettled at Midway. With few interruptions, occaſioned by the deaths of their miniſters, and the late war, in which they greatly ſuffered, they have had a preached goſpel conſtantly among them. They, as a people, retain in a great meaſure, that ſimplicity of manners, that unaffected piety and brotherly love, which characteriſed their anceſtors, the firſt ſettlers of New England. The upper counties are ſupplied, pretty generally, by Baptiſt and Methodiſt miniſters. But the greater part of the ſtate, is not ſuppled by miniſters of any denomination.

Conſtitution] The numerous defects in the preſent conſtitution of this ſtate, induced the citizens, pretty univerſally, to petition for a reviſion of it. It was acordingly reviſed, or rather a new one was formed, in the courſe of the laſt year, nearly upon the plan of the conſtitution of the United States *, but has not yet been adopted by the ſtate.

The ſtate of literature.] The literature of this ſtate, which is yet in its infancy, is commencing on a plan which affords the moſt flattering proſpects. It ſeems to have been the deſign of the legiſlature of this ſtate, as far as poſſible, to unite their literary concerns, and provide for them in common, that the whole might feel the benefit, and no part be neglected or left a prey to party rage, private prejudices and contentions, and conſequent ignorance, their inſeparable attendant. For this purpoſe, the literature of this ſtate, like its policy, appears to be conſidered as one ob-

* *See* 'Jackſon's Conſtitution of the American States, *publiſhed by order of Congreſs,*'—*printed for* Mr. Stockdale.

ject, and in the same manner subject to common and general regulations for the good of the whole. The charter containing their present system of education, passed in the year 1785. A college, with ample and liberal endowments, is instituted in Louisville, a high and healthy part of the country, near the center of the state. There is also provision made for the institution of an academy, in each county in the state, to be supported from the same funds, and considered as parts and members of the same institution, under the general superintendence and direction of a president and board of trustees, appointed, for their literary accomplishments, from the different parts of the state, invested with the customary powers of corporations. The institution thus composed, is denominated 'The University of Georgia.'

That this body of literati, to whom is intrusted the direction of the general literature of the state, may not be so detatched and independent, as not to possess the confidence of the state, and in order to secure the attention and patronage of the principal officers of government, the governor and council, the speaker of the house of assembly, and the chief justice of the state, are associated with the board of trustees, in some of the great and more solemn duties of their office, such as making the laws, appointing the president, settling the property, and instituting academies. Thus associated, they are denominated 'The Senate of the University,' and are to hold a stated, annual meeting, at which the governor of the state presides.

The senate appoint a board of commissioners in each county, for the particular management and direction of the academy, and the other schools in each county, who are to receive their instructions from, and are accountable to the senate. The rector of each academy is an officer of the university, to be appointed by the president, with the advice of the trustees, and commissioned under the public seal, and is to attend with the other officers at the annual meeting of the senate, to deliberate on the general interests of literature, and to determine on the course of instruction for the year, throughout the university. The president has the general charge and oversight of the whole, and is from time to time to visit them, to examine into their order and performances.

The funds for the support of their institution, are principally in lands, amounting in the whole to about fifty thousand acres, a great part of which is of the best quality, and at present very valuable. There are also nearly six thousand pounds sterling in bonds, houses, and town lots in the town of Augusta. Other public property to the amount of £. 1000, in each county, has been set apart for the purposes of building and furnishing their respective academies. The funds originally designed for the support of the orphan house, are chiefly in rice plantations and negroes. As the countess of Huntingdon has not, since the revolution, expressed her intention concerning them, they lie at present in a very unproductive situation.

Islands.] The whole coast is bordered with islands, affording, with few interruptions, an inland navigation from the river Savannah to St. Mary's. The principal islands are Skidaway, Wassaw, Ossabaw, St. Catharine's, Sapelo, Frederica, Jekyl, Cumberland and Amelia.

Indians.] The MUSKOGEE or CREEK Indians inhabit the middle parts of this state, and are the most numerous tribe of Indians of any within the

limits of the United States. Their whole number is 17,280, of which 5,860 are fighting men. Their principal towns lie in latitude 32° and longitude 11° 20′ from Philadelphia. They are ſettled in a hilly but not moutainous country. The ſoil is fruitful in a high degree, and well watered, abounding in creeks and rivulets, from whence they are called the *Creek Indians*.

The SEMINOLAS, a diviſion of the creek nation, inhabit a level, flat country on the Appalachicola and Flint rivers, fertile and well watered.

The CHACTAWS, or flat heads, inhabit a very fine and extenſive tract of hilly country, with large and fertile plains intervening between the Alabama and Miſſiſippi rivers, in the weſtern part of this ſtate. This nation have 43 towns and villages, in three diviſions, containing 12,123 ſouls, of which 4,041 are fighting men.

The CHICASAWS are ſettled on the head branches of the Tombeckbe, Mobile, and Yazoo rivers, in the north-weſt corner of the ſtate. Their country is an extenſive plain, tolerably well watered from ſprings, and of a pretty good ſoil. They have 7 towns, the central one of which is in latitude 34° 23′, and longitude 14° 30′ weſt. The number of ſouls in this nation have been reckoned at 1725, of which 575 are fighting men.

Hiſtory.] The ſettlement of a colony between the rivers Savannah and Alatamaha, was meditated in England in 1732, for the accommodation of poor people in Great-Britain and Ireland, and for the further ſecurity of Carolina. Private compaſſion and public ſpirit conſpired to promote the benevolent deſign.—Humane and opulent men ſuggeſted a plan of tranſporting a number of indigent families to this part of America, free of expence. For this purpoſe they applied to the King, George the IId. and obtained from him letters patent, bearing date June 9th, 1732, for legally carrying into execution what they had generouſly projected. They called the new province GEORGIA, in honour of the King, who encouraged the plan. A corporation, conſiſting of 21 perſons, was conſtituted by the name of truſtees, for ſettling and eſtabliſhing the colony of Georgia, which was ſeparated from Carolina by the River Savannah.—The truſtees having firſt ſet an example themſelves, by largely contributing to the ſcheme, undertook alſo to ſolicit benefactions from others, and to apply the money towards clothing, arming, purchaſing utenſils for cultivation, and tranſporting ſuch poor people as ſhould conſent to go over and begin a ſettlement. They did not confine their charitable views to the ſubjects of Britain alone; but wiſely opened a door for the indigent and oppreſſed proteſtants of other nations. To prevent a miſapplication of the money, it was depoſited in the bank of England.

About the middle of July, 1732, the truſtees for Georgia held their firſt meeting, and choſe Lord Percival preſident of the corporation—and ordered a common ſeal to be made.——In November following, 116 ſettlers embarked for Georgia, to be conveyed thither free of expence, furniſhed with every thing requiſite for building and for cultivating the ſoil. James Oglethorpe, one of the truſtees, and an active promoter of the ſettlement, embarked as the head and director of theſe ſettlers. They arrived at Charleſton early in the next year, where they met a friendly reception from the governor and council. Mr. Oglethorpe, accompanied by William Bull, ſhortly after his arrival, viſited Georgia, and after recon-

reconnoitring the country, marked the ſpot on which Savannah now ſtands, as the fitteſt to begin their ſettlement. Here they accordingly began, and built a ſmall fort; a number of ſmall huts for their defence and accommodation.——Such of the ſettlers as were able to bear arms, were embodied, and well appointed with officers, arms, and ammunition.——A treaty of friendſhip was concluded between the ſettlers and their neighbours, and the Creek Indians, and every thing wore the aſpect of peace and future proſperity.

In the mean time the truſtees for Georgia had been employed in framing a plan of ſettlement, and eſtabliſhing ſuch public regulations as they judged moſt proper for anſwering the great end of the corporation. In this general plan they conſidered each inhabitant both as a planter and a ſoldier, who muſt be provided with arms and ammunition for defence, as well as with tools and utenſils for cultivation. As the ſtrength of the province was their chief object in view, they agreed to eſtabliſh ſuch tenures for holding lands in it as they judged moſt favourable for a military eſtabliſhment. Each tract of land granted was conſidered as a military fief, for which the poſſeſſor was to appear in arms, and take the field, when called upon for the public defence. To prevent large tracts from falling in proceſs of time into one hand, they agreed to grant their lands in tail male in preference to tail in general. On the termination of the eſtate in tail male, the lands were to revert to the truſt; and ſuch lands thus reverting were to be granted again to ſuch perſons, as the common-council of the truſt ſhould judge moſt advantageous for the colony; only the truſtees in ſuch a caſe were to pay ſpecial regard to the daughters of ſuch perſons as had made improvements on their lots, eſpecially when not already provided for by marriage. The wives of ſuch perſons as ſhould ſurvive them, were to be, during their lives, entitled to the manſion-houſe, and one-half of the lands improved by their huſbands. No man was to be permitted to depart the province without licence. If any of the lands granted by the truſtees ſhall not be cultivated, cleared, and fenced round about with a worm fence, or pales, ſix feet high, within eighteen years from the date of grant, ſuch part was to revert to the truſt, and the grant with reſpect to it to be void. All forfeitures for non-reſidence, high-treaſon, felonies, &c. were to the truſtees for the uſe and benefit of the colony. The uſe of negroes was to be abſolutely prohibited, and alſo the importation of rum. None of the coloniſts were to be permitted to trade with Indians, but ſuch as ſhould obtain a ſpecial licence for that purpoſe.

Theſe were ſome of the fundamental regulations eſtabliſhed by the truſtees of Georgia, and perhaps the imagination of man could ſcarcely have framed a ſyſtem of rules worſe adapted to the circumſtances and ſituation of the poor ſettlers, and of more pernicious conſequence to the proſperity of the province. Yet, although the truſtees were greatly miſtaken, with reſpect to their plan of ſettlement, it muſt be acknowledged their views were generous. As the people ſent out by them were the poor and unfortunate, who were to be provided with neceſſaries at their public ſtore, they received their lands upon condition of cultivation, and, by their perſonal reſidence, of defence. Silk and wine being the chief articles intended to be raiſed, they judged negroes were not requiſite to theſe purpoſes.

poſes. As the colony was deſigned to be a barrier to South-Carolina, againſt the Spaniſh ſettlement at Auguſtine, they imagined that negroes would rather weaken than ſtrengthen it, and that ſuch poor coloniſts would run in debt, and ruin themſelves by purchaſing them. Rum was judged pernicious to health, and ruinous to the infant ſettlement. A free trade with Indians was conſidered as a thing that might have a tendency to involve the people in quarrels and troubles with the powerful ſavages, and expoſe them to danger and deſtruction. Such were, probably, the motives which induced thoſe humane and generous perſons to impoſe ſuch fooliſh and ridiculous reſtrictions on their colony. For by granting their ſmall eſtates in tail mail, they drove the ſettlers from Georgia, who ſoon found that abundance of lands could be obtained in America upon a larger ſcale, and on much better terms. By the prohibition of negroes, they rendered it impracticable in ſuch a climate to make any impreſſion on the thick foreſts, Europeans being utterly unqualified for the heavy taſk. By their diſcharging a trade with the weſt-Indies, they not only deprived the coloniſts of an excellent and convenient market for their lumber, of which they had abundance on their lands, but alſo of rum, which, when mixed with a ſufficient quantity of water, has been found in experience the cheapeſt, the moſt refreſhing, and nouriſhing drink for workmen in ſuch a foggy and burning climate. The truſtees, like other diſtant legiſlators, who framed their regulations upon principles of ſpeculation, were liable to many errors and miſtakes, and however good their deſign, their rules were found improper and impracticable. The Carolinians plainly perceived that they would prove inſurmountable obſtacles to the progreſs and proſperity of the colony, and therefore from motives of pity began to invite the poor Georgians to come over Savannah river, and ſettle in Carolina; being convinced that they could never ſucceed under ſuch impolitic and oppreſſive reſtrictions.

Beſides the large ſums of money which the truſtees had expended for the ſettlement of Georgia, the parliament had alſo granted during the two laſt years £.36,000 towards carrying into execution the humane purpoſe of the corporation. But after the repreſentation and memorial from the legiſlature of Carolina reached Britain, the nation conſidered Georgia to be of the utmoſt importance to the Britiſh ſettlements in America, and began to make ſtill more vigorous efforts for its ſpeedy population. The firſt embarkations of poor people from England, being collected from towns and cities, were found equally idle and uſeleſs members of ſociety abroad, as they had been at home. An hardy and bold race of men, inured to rural labour and fatigue, they were perſuaded would be much better adapted both for cultivation and defence. To find men poſſeſſed of theſe qualifications, they turned their eyes to Germany and the Highlands of Scotland, and reſolved to ſend over a number of Scotch and German labourers to their infant province. When they publiſhed their terms at Inverneſs, an hundred and thirty Highlanders immediately accepted them, and were tranſported to Georgia. A townſhip on the river Alatamaha, which was conſidered as the boundary between the Britiſh and Spaniſh territories, was allotted for the Highlanders, on which dangerous ſituation they ſettled, and built a town, which they called New Inverneſs. About the ſame time an hundred and ſeventy Germans embarked with James Oglethorpe

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and were fixed in another quarter: ſo that, in the ſpace of three years, Georgia received above four hundred Britiſh ſubjects, and about an hundred and ſeventy foreigners. Afterwards ſeveral adventurers, both from Scotland and Germany, followed their countrymen, and added further ſtrength to the province, and the truſtees flattered themſelves with the hopes of ſoon ſeeing it in a promiſing condition.

Their hopes, however, were vain. Their injudicious regulations and reſtrictions—the wars in which they were involved with the Spaniards and Indians—and the frequent inſurrections among themſelves, threw the colony into a ſtate of confuſion and wretchedneſs too great for human nature long to endure. Their oppreſſed ſituation was repreſented to the truſtees by repeated complaints; till at length, finding that the province languiſhed under their care, and weary with the complaints of the people, they, in the year 1752, ſurrendered their charter to the king, and it was made a royal government. In conſequence of which, his majeſty appointed John Reynolds, an officer of the navy, governor of the province, and a legiſlator, ſimilar to that of the other royal governments in America, was eſtabliſhed in it. Great had been the expence which the mother country had already incurred, beſides private benefactions, for ſupporting this colony; and ſmall have been the returns yet made by it. The veſtiges of cultivation was ſcarcely perceptible in the foreſts, and in England all commerce with it was neglected and deſpiſed At this time the whole annual exports of Georgia did not amount to £ 10,000 ſterling. Though the people were now favoured with the ſame liberties and privileges enjoyed by their neighbours under the royal care, yet ſeveral years more elapſed before the value of the lands in Georgia was known; and that ſpirit of induſtry broke out in it, which afterwards diffuſed its happy influence over the country.

In the year 1740, the Rev. George Whiteſield founded an orphan-houſe academy in Georgia, about 12 miles from Savannah.—For the ſupport of this, in his itinerations, he collected large ſums of money of all denominations of chriſtians, both in England and America. A part of this money was expended in erecting proper buildings to accommodate the ſtudents, and a part in ſupporting them. In 1768, it was propoſed that the orphan-houſe ſhould be erected into a college. Whereupon Mr. Whiteſield applied to the crown for a charter, which would have been readily granted, on condition that the preſident ſhould, in all ſucceſſions, be an Epiſcopalian, of the Church of England. Several letters paſſed between the archbiſhop of Canterbury and Mr. Whiteſield, on this ſubject, in which the archbiſhop inſiſted on this condition. But Mr. Whiteſield, though himſelf an Epiſcopalian, declined it, alledging to his grace, that it would be unjuſt to limit that office to any particular ſect, when the donations for the foundation of the inſtitution had been made and intruſted to him by the various religious denominations both in England and America. In conſequence of this diſpute, the affair of a charter was given up, and Mr. Whiteſield made his aſſignment of the orphan houſe in truſt to the counteſs of Huntingdon. Mr. Whiteſield died at Newbury Port, in New-England, in October, 1770, in the 56th year of his age, and was buried under the Preſbyterian church in that place.

Soon

Soon after his death a charter was granted to his inſtitution in Georgia, and the Rev. Mr. Percy was appointed preſident of the college. Mr. Percy accordingly came over to execute his office, but, unfortunately, on the 30th of May, 1775, the orphan-houſe building caught fire, and was entirely conſumed, except the two wings, which are ſtill remaining. The American war ſoon after came on, and put every thing into confuſion, and the funds have ever ſince lay in an unproductive ſtate. It is probable, that the college eſtate may hereafter be ſo incorporated with the univerſity of Georgia, as to ſubſerve the original and pious purpoſes of its founder.

From the time Georgia became a royal government, in 1752, till the peace of Paris, in 1763, ſhe ſtruggled under many difficulties, ariſing from the want of credit, from friends, and the moleſtations of enemies. The good effects of the peace were ſenſibly felt in the province of Georgia. From this time it began to flouriſh, under the fatherly care of Governor Wright. To form a judgment of the rapid growth of the colony, we need only attend to its exports.

In the year 1763, the exports of Georgia conſiſted of 7,500 barrels of rice, 9,633 pounds of indigo, 1,250 buſhels of Indian corn, which, together with deer and beaver ſkins, naval ſtores, proviſions, timber, &c. amounted to no more than £.27,021 ſterling. Ten years afterwards, in 1773, it exported commodities to the value of £.121,677 ſterling.

During the late war, Georgia was over-run by the Britiſh troops, and the inhabitants were obliged to flee into the neighbouring ſtates for ſafety. The ſufferings and loſſes of her citizens were as great, in proportion to their numbers and wealth, as in any of the ſtates. Since the peace, the progreſs of the population of this ſtate, has been aſtoniſhingly rapid. Its growth in improvement and population has been checked by the hoſtile irruptions of the Creek Indians, which have been frequent, and very diſtreſſing to the frontier inhabitants for theſe two years paſt. This formidable nation of Indians, headed by one Mac Gilvery, an inhabitant of Georgia, who ſided with the Britiſh in the late war, ſtill continue to harraſs the frontiers of this ſtate. Treaties have been held, and a ceſſation of hoſtilities agreed to between the parties; but all have hitherto proved ineffectual to the accompliſhment of a peace. It is expected that, under the new government, conciliatory meaſures will be adopted, and tranquillity reſtored to the ſtate.

THE WESTERN TERRITORY.

UNDER this name is comprehended all that part of the United States which lies north-weſt of the Ohio. Bounded weſt, by the Miſſiſippi river; north by the Lakes; eaſt, by Pennſylvania; ſouth-eaſt and ſouth, by the Ohio river. Containing, according to Mr. Hutchins, 411,000 ſquare miles, equal to 263,040,000 acres—from which, if we deduct

deduct 43,040.000 acres for water, there will remain 220,000,000 of acres, belonging to the federal government, to be ſold for the diſcharge of the national debt; except a narrow ſtrip of land, bordering on the ſouth of Lake Erie, and ſtretching 120 miles weſt of the weſtern limit of Penſylvania, which belongs to Connecticut.

But a ſmall proportion of theſe lands is yet purchaſed of the natives, and to be diſpoſed of by Congreſs. Beginning on the meridian line, which forms the weſtern boundary of Pennſylvania, ſeven ranges of townſhips have been ſurveyed and laid off by order of Congreſs. As a north and ſouth line ſtrikes the Ohio in an oblique direction, the termination of the 7th range falls upon that river, 9 miles above the Muſkingum, which is the firſt large river that falls into the Ohio. It forms this junction 172 miles below Fort Pitt, including the windings of the Ohio, though in a direct line it is but 90 miles.

The lands in which the Indian title is extinguiſhed, and which are now purchaſing under the United States, are bounded by Pennſylvania on the eaſt, by the Great Miami on the weſt, by the Ohio on the ſouth, and extend nearly to the head waters of the Muſkingum and Sioto on the north. On theſe lands two ſettlements are commencing, one of Marietta *, at the mouth of Muſkingum, under the direction of the Ohio company. This ſettlement conſiſts, at preſent, of about 220 ſouls, and is almoſt daily increaſing. The other between the Miami rivers, under the direction of Colonel Symmes, which, though very ſmall at preſent, is in proſpect of a rapid enlargement. There are ſeveral other tracts, delineated on the map, which have been granted by Congreſs to particular companies, and other tracts for particular uſes, which remain without any Engliſh ſettlements.

Rivers.] The *Muſkingum* is a gentle river, confined by banks ſo high as to prevent its overflowing. It is 250 yards wide at its confluence with the Ohio, and navigable by large batteaux and barges to the Three Legs; and, by ſmall ones, to the lake at its head. From thence by a portage of about one mile, a communication is opened to Lake Erie, through the Cayahoga, which is a ſtream of great utility, navigable the whole length, without any obſtruction from falls. From Lake Erie, the avenue is well known to the Hudſon in the ſtate of New York.

The *Hockhocking* reſembles the Muſkingum, though ſomewhat inferior in ſize. It is navigable for large boats about 70 miles, and for ſmall ones much farther. On the banks of this very uſeful ſtream are found inexhauſtible quarries of free-ſtone, large beds of iron ore, and ſome rich mines of lead. Coal mines and ſalt ſprings are frequent in the neighbourhood of this ſtream, as they are in every part of the weſtern territory. The ſalt that may be obtained from thoſe ſprings will afford an inexhauſtible ſtore of that neceſſary article. Beds of white and blue clay, of an excellent quality, are likewiſe found here, ſuitable for the manufacture of glaſs, crockery, and other earthern wares. Red bole and many other uſeful foſſils have been obſerved on the branches of this river.

The *Sioto* is a larger river than either of the preceding, and opens a more extenſive navigation. It is paſſable for large barges for 200 miles,

* *This place was firſt called* Adelphi, *and is ſo called in the map.*

with a portage of only 4 miles to the Sanduſky, a good navigable ſtream that falls into the Lake Erie. Through the Sanduſky and Sioto lies the moſt common paſs from Canada to the Ohio and Miſſiſippi; one of the moſt extenſive and uſeful communications that are to be found in any country. Prodigious extenſions of territory are here connected; and, from the rapidity with which the weſtern parts of Canada, Lake Erie and the Kentueky countries are ſettling, we may anticipate an immenſe intercourſe between them. The lands on the borders of theſe middle ſtreams, from this circumſtance alone, aſide from their natural fertility, muſt be rendered vaſtly valuable. There is no doubt but flour, corn, flax, hemp, &c. raiſed for exportation in that great country between the lakes Huron and Ontario, will find an eaſier outlet through Lake Erie and theſe rivers, than in any other direction. The Ohio merchant can give a higher price than thoſe of Quebec, for theſe commodities; as they may be tranſported from the former to Florida and the Weſt India iſlands, with leſs expence, riſk and inſurance, than from the latter; while the expence from the place of growth to the Ohio will not be one fourth of what it would be to Quebec, and much leſs than even to the Oneyda lake. The ſtream of Sioto is gentle, no where broken by falls: At ſome places, in the ſpring of the year, it overflows its banks, providing for large natural rice plantations. Salt ſprings, coal mines, white and blue clay, and free-ſtone, abound in the country adjoining this river.

The *Little Miami* is too ſmall for batteaux navigation. Its banks are good land, and ſo high as to prevent, in common, the overflowing of the water.

The *Great Miami* has a very ſtoney channel, and a ſwift ſtream, but no falls. It is formed of ſeveral large branches, which are paſſable for boats a great diſtance. One branch comes from the weſt, and riſes in the Wabaſh country: Another riſes near the head waters of Miami river which runs into Lake Erie; and a ſhort portage divides another branch, from the weſt branch of Sanduſky river.

The *Wabaſh* is a beautiful river, with high and fertile banks. It empties into the Ohio, by a mouth 270 yards wide, 1020 miles below Fort Pitt. In the ſpring, ſummer and autumn, it is paſſable with batteaux, drawing three feet water, 412 miles, to Ouitanon, a ſmall French ſettlement, on the weſt ſide of the river; and for large canoes 197 miles further, to the Miami carrying place, 9 miles from Miami village. This village ſtands on Miami river, which empties into the ſouth-weſt part of Lake Erie. The communication between Detroit, and the Illinois, and Ohio countries is, down Miami river to Miami village; thence, by land 9 miles when the rivers are high—and from 18 to 30 when they are low, through a level country, to the Wabaſh, and through the various branches of the Wabaſh to the places of deſtination.

A ſilver mine has been diſcovered about 28 miles above Ouitanon, on the northern ſide of the Wabaſh. Salt ſprings, lime, free-ſtone, blue, yellow and white clay are found in plenty upon this river.

The rivers *Avaſe* and *Kaſkaſkias* empty into the Miſſiſippi from the north-eaſt; the former is navigable for boats 60, and the latter about 130 miles. They both run through a rich country, which has extenſive meadows.

Between

Between the Kaſkaſkias and Illinois rivers, which are 84 miles apart, is in an extenſive tract of level, rich land, which terminates in a high ridge, about 15 miles before you reach the Illinois river. In this delightful vale are number of French villages, which, together with thoſe of St. Genevieve and St. Louis, on the weſtern ſide of the Miſſiſippi, contained in 1771, 1,273 fencible men.

One hundred and ſeventy-ſix miles above the Ohio, and 18 miles above the Miſſouri, the Illinios empties into the Miſſiſippi from the north-eaſt by a mouth about 400 yards wide. This river is bordered with fine meadows, which in ſome places extend as far as the eye can reach: This river furniſhes a communication with Lake Michigan, by the Chicago river, between which and the Illinois, are two portages, the longeſt of which does not exceed 4 miles. It receives a number of rivers which are from 20 to 100 yards wide, and navigable for boats from 15 to 180 miles. On the north-weſtern ſide of this river is a coal mine, which extends for half a mile along the middle of the bank of the river. On the eaſtern ſide, about half a mile from the river, and about the ſame diſtance below the coal mine, are two ſalt ponds, 100 yards in circumference, and ſeveral feet in depth. The water is ſtagnant, and of a yellowiſh colour; but the French and natives make good ſalt from it. The ſoil of the Illinois country is, in general, of a ſuperior quality—its natural growth are oak, hiccory, cedar, mulberry, &c. hops, dying drugs, medicinal plants of ſeveral kinds, and excellent wild grapes. In the year of 1769, the French ſettlers made 100 hogſheads of ſtrong wine from theſe grapes.

There are many other rivers of equal ſize and importance with thoſe we have been deſcribing, which are not ſufficiently known for accurate deſcriptions.

Population.] It is impoſſible to tell the exact population of this country. Mr. Hutchins, the geographer of the United States, who is the beſt acquainted with the country, eſtimates them at about 6000 ſouls, excluſive of Indians. This number is made up of French, Engliſh emigrants from the original ſtates, and negroes.

Face of the country, ſoil and productions.] To the remarks on theſe heads, interperſed in the deſcription of the rivers, we will add ſome obſervations from an anonymous pamphlet, lately publiſhed, which we preſume are the moſt authentic, reſpecting that part of the country which has been purchaſed of Indians, of any that has been given.

'The undiſtinguiſhed term of admiration, that are commonly uſed in ſpeaking of the natural fertility of the country on the weſtern waters of the United States, would render it difficult, without accurate attention in the ſurveys to aſcribe a preference to any particular part; or to give a juſt deſcription of the territory under conſideration, without the hazard of being ſuſpected of exaggeration: But in *this* we have the united opinion of the geographer, the ſurveyors, and every traveller that has been intimately acquainted with the country, and marked every natural object with the moſt ſcrupulous exactneſs—That no part of the federal territory unites ſo many advantages, in point of health, fertility, variety of production and foreign entercourſe, as that tract which ſtretches from the Muſkingum to the Sioto and the Great Miami rivers.

'Colonel Gordon, in his journal, ſpeaking of a much large range of country, in which this is included, and makes unqueſtionably the fineſt

part, has the following obſervation :—" The country on the Ohio is every where pleaſant, with large level ſpots of rich land ; and remarkably healthy. One general remark of this nature will ſerve for the whole tract of the globe comprehended between the weſtern ſkirts of the Allegany mountains ; thence running ſouth-weſtwardly to the diſtance of 500 miles to the Ohio falls ; then croſſing them northerly to the heads of the rivers that empty themſelves into the Ohio ; thence eaſt along the ridge that ſeparates the lakes and Ohio's ſtreams, to French creek.—This country may, from a proper knowledge, be affirmed to be the moſt healthy, the moſt pleaſant, the moſt commodious and moſt fertile ſpot of earth, known to the European people."

' The lands that feed the various ſtreams above-mentioned, which fall into the Ohio, are now more accurately known, and may be deſcribed with confidence and preciſion. They are interſperſed with all the variety of ſoil which conduces to pleaſantneſs of ſituation, and lays the foundation for the wealth of an agricultural and manufacturing people. Large level bottoms, or natural meadows, from 20 to 50 miles in circuit, are every where found bordering the rivers, and variegating the country in the interior parts. Theſe afford as rich a ſoil as can be imagined, and may be reduced to proper cultivation with very little labour. It is ſaid, that in many of theſe bottoms a man may clear an acre a day, fit for planting with Indian corn ; there being no under wood ; and the trees, growing, very high and large, but not thick together, need nothing but girdling.

' The prevailing growth of timber and the more uſeful trees are, maple or ſugar tree, ſycamore, black and white mulberry, black and white walnut, butternut, cheſnut, white, black, Spaniſh and cheſnut oaks, hiccory, cherry, buckwood, honey, locuſt, elm, horſe-cheſnut, cucumber tree, lynn tree, gum tree, iron wood, aſh, aſpin, ſaſſafras, crab-apple tree, paupaw or cuſtard apple, a variety of plum trees, nine bark ſpice, and leather wood buſhes. General Parſons meaſured a black walnut tree near the Muſkingum, whoſe circumference, at five feet from the ground, was 22 feet. A ſycamore, near the ſame place, meaſures 44 feet in circumference, at ſome diſtance from the ground. White and black oak, and cheſnut, with moſt of the above-mentioned timbers, grow large and plenty upon the high grounds. Both the high and low lands produce vaſt quantities of natural grapes of various kinds, of which the ſettlers univerſally make a ſufficiency for their own conſumption of rich red wine. It is aſſerted in the old ſettlement of St. Vincent's, where they have had opportunity to try it, that age will render this wine preferable to moſt of the European wines. Cotton is the natural production of this country, and grows in great perfection.

' The ſugar maple is a moſt valuable tree for an inland country. Any number of inhabitants may be for ever ſupplied with a ſufficiency of ſugar, by preſerving a few trees for the uſe of each family. A tree will yield about ten pounds of ſugar a year, and the labour is very trifling : The ſap is extracted in the months of February and March, and granulated, by the ſimple operation of boiling, to a ſugar equal in flavour and whiteneſs to the beſt Muſcovado.

' Springs of excellent water abound in every part of this territory : and ſmall and large ſtreams, for mills and other purpoſes, are actually interſperſed

terperſed, as if by art, that there be no deficiency in any of the conveniencies of life.

'Very little waſte land is to be found in any part of this tract of country. There are no ſwamps; and though the hills are frequent, they are gently and ſwelling, no where high, nor incapable of tillage. They are of a deep, rich ſoil, covered with a heavy growth of timber and, well adapted to the production of wheat, rye, indigo, tobacco, &c.

'The communications between this country and the ſea will be principally in the four following directions.

'1. The rout through the Sioto and Muſkingum to Lake Erie, and ſo to the river Hudſon: which has been already deſcribed.

'2. The paſſage up the Ohio and Monongahela to the portage abovementioned, which leads to the navigable waters of the Potowmac. This portage is 30 miles, and will probably be rendered much leſs by the execution of the plans now on foot for opening the navigation of thoſe waters.

'3. The great Kanhaway, which falls into the Ohio from the Virginia ſhore between the Hockhocking and Sioto, opens an extenſive navigation from the ſouth-eaſt, and leaves but 18 miles portage from the navigable waters of Jame's river, in Virginia. This communication, for the country between Muſkingum and Sioto, will probably be more uſed than any other, for the exportation of manufactures, and other light and valuable articles; and, eſpecially for the importation of foreign commodities, which may be brought from the Cheſapeek to the Ohio much cheaper than they are now carried from Philadelphia to Carliſle, and the other thick ſettled back countries of Pennſylvania.

'4. But the current down the Ohio and the Miſſiſippi, for heavy articles that ſuit the Florida and Weſt-India markets, ſuch as corn, flour, beef, lumber, &c. will be more frequently loaded than any ſtreams on earth. The diſtance from the Sioto to the Miſſiſippi is 800 miles; from thence to the ſea is 900. This whole courſe is eaſily run in 15 days; and the paſſage up thoſe rivers is not ſo difficult as has uſually been repreſented. It is found, by late experiments, that ſails are uſed to great advantage againſt the current of Ohio: And it is worthy of obſervation, that in all probability ſteam boats will be found to do infinite ſervice in all our extenſive river navigation.

'As far as obſervations in paſſing the rivers, and the tranſitory remarks of travellers will juſtify an opinion, the lands farther down, and in other parts of the unappropriated country, are not equal in point of ſoil and other local advantages, to the tract which is here deſcribed. This, however, cannot be accurately determined, as the preſent ſituation of theſe countries will not admit of that minute inſpection which has been beſtowed on the one under conſideration.

'It is a happy circumſtance, that the *Ohio Company* are about to commence the ſettlement of this country in ſo regular and judicious a manner. It will ſerve as a wiſe model for the future ſettlement of all the federal lands; at the ſame time that, by beginning ſo near the weſtern limit of Pennſylvania, it will be a continuation of the old ſettlements, leaving vacant no lands expoſed to by ſuch lawleſs banditti as uſual infeſt the frontiers of countries diſtant from the ſeat of government.

'The

'The design of Congress and of the settlers is, that the settlements shall proceed regularly down the Ohio; and northward to Lake Erie. And it is probable that not many years will elapse, before the whole country above Miami will be brought to that degree of cultivation, which will exhibit all its latent beauties, and justify those descriptions of travellers which have so often made it the garden of the world, the seat of wealth, and the centre of a great empire.'

Animals, &c.] 'No country is better stocked with wild game of ever kind: Innumerable herds of deer, elk, buffalo, and bear, are sheltered in the groves, and fed in the extensive bottoms that every where abound; an unquestionable proof of the great fertility of the soil. Turkies, geese, ducks, swans, teal, pheasants, partridges, &c. are, from observation, believed to be in greater plenty here, than the tame poultry are in any part of the old settlements in America.

'The rivers are well stored with fish of various kinds, and many of them of an excellent quality. They are generally large, though of different sizes: The cat-fish, which is the largest, and of a delicious flavour, weighs from 30 to 80 pounds.'

Antiquities and Curiosities.] The number of old forts found in the Kentucky country are the admiration of the curious, and a matter of much speculation. They are mostly of a circular form, situated on strong, well chosen ground, and contiguous to water. When—by whom—and for what purpose, these were thrown up, is uncertain. They are certainly very ancient, as there is not the least visible difference in the age or size of the timber growing on or within these forts, and that which grows without, and the oldest natives have lost all tradition respecting them. They must have been the efforts of a people much more devoted to labour than our present race of Indians; and it is difficult to conceive how they could be constructed without the use of iron tools. At a convenient distance from these always stands a small mount of earth, thrown up in the form of a pyramid, and seems in some measure proportioned to the size of its adjacent fortification. On examination, they have been found to contain a chalky substance, supposed to be bones, and of the human kind.

On an extensive plain, or, as the French term it *parara**, between Post St. Vincent and Cuscusco river, is what is called the *Battle Ground*, where the Siack and Cuscusco Indians fought a desperate battle, in which about 800 were killed on each side. On this spot, the ground for two miles is covered with skulls and other human bones.

Forts.] The stations occupied by the troops of the United States on the frontiers, are the following.

FORT FRANKLIN—On the French creek, near to the post formerly called Venango, is a small strong fort with one cannon, was erected in 1787, and

* *A* parara, *which answers to what in the southern states is called a* savannah, *is an extensive rich plain, without trees, and covered with grass. Some of these pararas, between Post St. Vincent and the Mississippi are* 30 *or* 40 *miles broad, and several hundred miles in length. In passing them, as far as the eye can reach, there is not a tree to be seen; but there is plenty of buffaloes, deer, elks, bears, and wolves, and innumerable flocks of turkies; these, with the green grass, form a rich and beautiful prospect.*

garrisoned

garriſoned with one company. The excellent conſtruction and execution of this work reflects honor on the abilities and induſtry of Captain Hart, who garriſons it with his company, and who was his own engineer.

This poſt was eſtabliſhed for the purpoſe of defending the frontiers of Pennſylvania, which are much expoſed by the facility with which the Indians can croſs from Lake Erie, either to French creek or the Jadagghue Lake and the Conneawango branch, and thence deſcend the rapid river Allegany.

FORT PITT—Has only an officer, and a few men to receive the ſupplies and diſpatches forwarded to the troops by the Secretary at War.

FORT M'INTOSH—Is ordered to be demoliſhed, and a block-houſe to be erected in lieu thereof, a few miles up the Big Beaver creek to protect the communication up the ſame, and alſo to cover the country.

FORT HARMAR—At the mouth of Muſkingum, is a well conſtructed fort, with five baſtions, and three cannons mounted.

It is at preſent garriſoned with four companies, and is conſidered as head quarters, being conveniently ſituated to reinforce any of the poſts either up or down the river Ohio.

FORT STEUBEN—At the rapids of the Ohio, on the weſt ſide is a well-conſtructed ſmall fort, with one cannon, and is garriſoned with a major and two companies. This poſt is eſtabliſhed to cover the country from the incurſions of the Indians, and it alſo ſerves as a poſt of communication to Poſt Vincennes on the Wabaſh.

POST VINCENNES—On the Wabaſh, is a work erected during the year 1787, and has four ſmall braſs cannon. It is garriſoned by a major and two companies.

It is eſtabliſhed to curb the incurſions of the Wabaſh Indians into Kentucky country, and to prevent the uſurpation of the federal lands, the fertility of which have been too ſtrong a temptation to the lawleſs people of the frontiers, who poſted themſelves there in force in the year 1786. Brigadier-General Harmar, by order of Congreſs, formed an expedition in Auguſt, 1787, for the purpoſe of diſpoſſeſſing them; but previous to his arrival, moſt of the intruders abandoned their ſettlement.

Government, &c] By an ordinance of Congreſs, paſſed on the 13th of July, 1787, this country, for the purpoſe of temporary government, was erected into one diſtrict, ſubject, however to a diviſion, when circumſtances ſhall make it expedient.

In the ſame ordinance it is provided, that Congreſs ſhall appoint a governor, whoſe commiſſion ſhall continue in force three years, unleſs ſooner revoked.

The governor muſt reſide in the diſtrict, and have a freehold eſtate therein, in 1000 acres of land, while in the exerciſe of his office.

Congreſs, from time to time, are to appoint a ſecretary, to continue in office four years, unleſs ſooner removed, who muſt reſide in the diſtrict, and have an eſtate of 500 acres of land, while in office.

The buſineſs of the ſecretary is, to keep and preſerve the acts and laws of the legiſlature, and the public records of the diſtrict, and the proceedings of the governor, in his executive department; and to tranſmit authentic copies of ſuch acts and proceedings, every ſix months, to the ſecretary of Congreſs.

The

The ordinance provides that Congreſs ſhall appoint three judges, poſſeſſed each of 500 acres of land in the diſtrict in which they are to reſide, and to hold their commiſſions during good behaviour, any two of whom, ſhall form a court, which ſhall have a common law juriſdiction. The governor and judges are authorized to adopt and publiſh in the diſtrict, ſuch laws of the original ſtates, criminal and civil, as may be neceſſary and beſt ſuited to the circumſtances of the diſtrict, and report them to Congreſs, and if approved they ſhall continue in force, till the organization of the general aſſembly of the diſtrict, who ſhall have authority to alter them. The governor is to command the militia, and appoint and commiſſion their officers, except general officers, who are to be appointed and commiſſioned by Congreſs.

Previous to the organization of the aſſembly, the governor is to appoint ſuch magiſtrates and civil officers, as ſhall be deemed neceſſary for the preſervation of peace and order.

So ſoon as there ſhall be 5000 free male inhabitants of full age, in the diſtrict, they ſhall receive authority to elect repreſentatives, one for every 500 free male inhabitants, to repreſent them in the general aſſembly; the repreſentation to increaſe progreſſively with the number of free male inhabitants, till there be 25 repreſentatives; after which the number and proportion of the repreſentatives ſhall be regulated by the legiſlature. A repreſentative muſt poſſeſs, in fee ſimple, 200 acres of land, and be a reſident in the diſtrict—and muſt have been a citizen of the United States, or a reſident in the diſtrict, three years preceding his election. An elector muſt have 50 acres of land in the diſtrict—muſt have been a citizen of one of the ſtates—and muſt be a reſident in the diſtrict—or muſt poſſeſs the ſame freehold—and have been two years a reſident in the diſtrict. The repreſentatives, when duly elected, are to continue in office two years.

The general aſſembly, or legiſlature, ſhall conſiſt of the governor, legiſlative council, and houſe of repreſentatives. The legiſlative council ſhall conſiſt of five members, to continue in office five years, unleſs ſooner removed by Congreſs. Three make a quorum.—The council are to be thus appointed: The governor and repreſentatives, when met, ſhall nominate ten perſons, reſidents in the diſtrict, and each poſſeſſed of a freehold in 500 acres of land, and return their names to Congreſs, who ſhall appoint and commiſſion five of them to ſerve as aforeſaid.

All bills paſſed by a majority in the houſe, and in the council, ſhall be referred to the governor for his aſſent; but no bill or legiſlative act whatever, ſhall be of force without his aſſent. The governor ſhall have power to convene, prorogue, and diſſolve the general aſſembly, when, in his opinion, it ſhall be expedient.

The legiſlature, when organized, ſhall have authority, by joint ballot, to elect a delegate to Congreſs, who ſhall have a ſeat in Congreſs, with a right of debating, but not of voting, during this temporary government.

'And for extending the fundamental principles of civil and religious liberty, which form the baſis whereon theſe republics, their laws and conſtitutions are erected; to fix and eſtabliſh thoſe principles as the baſis of all laws, conſtitutions and governments, which for ever hereafter ſhall be

formed in the same territory; to provide also for the establishment of states, and permament government therein, and for their admission to share in the federal councils on an equal footing with the original states, at as early periods as may be consistent with the general interest:

'It is hearby ordained and declared by the authority aforesaid, That the following articles shall be considered articles of compact, between the original states and the people, and states in the same territory, and for ever remain unalterable, unless common consent, to wit:

'Article 1st. No person demeaning himself in a peaceable and orderly manner shall ever be molested on account of his mode of worship or religious sentiments in the same teritory.

'Article 2d. The inhabitants of the said territory shall always be entitled to the benefits of the writ of habeas corpus, and of the trial by jury, of a proportionate representation of the people in the legislature, and of judicial proceedings according to the course of the common law: all persons shall be bailable unless for capital offences, where the proof shall be evident, or the presumption great: all fines shall be moderate, and no cruel or unusual punishment shall be inflicted; no man shall be deprived of his liberty or property but by the judgement of his peers, or of the law of the land; and should the public exigencies make it necessary for the common preservation to take any person's property, or to demand his particular services, full compensation shall be made for the same; and in the just preservation of the rights and property it is understood and declared, that no law ought ever to be made, or have force in the said territory, that shall in any manner whatever interfer with, or affect private contracts or engagements, *bona fide*, and without fraud previously formed.

'Article 3d. Religion, morality, and knowledge, being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schoolls and the means of education shall forever be encouraged, the utmost good faith shall always be observed towards the Indians; their lands and property shall never be taken from them without their consent; and in their property, rights, and liberty, they shall never be invaded or disturbed, unless in just and lawful wars authorized by Congress; but laws founded on justice and humanity shall from time to time be made, for preventing wrongs being done to them, and for preserving peace and friendship with them.

Article 4th. The said territory and the estates which may be formed therein; shall for ever remain a part of this confederacy of the United States of America, subject to the articles of confederation, and to such alterations therein as shall be constitutionally made; and to all the acts and ordinances of the United States, in Congress assembled, conformable thereto. The inhabitants and settlers in the said territory, shall be subject to pay a part of the federal debts contracted; or to be contracted, and a proportionable part of the expences of government to be apportioned on them by Congress, according to the same common rule and measure; by which apportionments thereof shall be made on the other states; and the taxes for paying their proportion; shall be laid and levied by the authority and direction of the legislatures of the district or districts, or new states, as the original states; within the time agreed upon by the United States, Congress assembled. The legislature of those districts; or new states, shall never interfer with the primary disposal of the soil, by the United States;

States, in Congreſs aſſembled, nor with any regulations Congreſs may find neceſſary for ſecuring the title in ſuch ſoil to the *bona fide* purchaſers. No tax ſhall be impoſed on lands the property of the United States; and in no caſe ſhall non-reſident proprietors be taxed higher than reſidents. The navigable waters leading into the Miſſiſippi and St. Lawrence, and the carrying places between the ſame, ſhall be common highways, and for ever free, as well to the inhabitants of the ſaid territory, as to the citizens of the United States, and thoſe of any other ſtates that may be admitted into the confederacy, without any tax, impoſt, or duty therefor.

'Article 5th. There ſhall be formed in the ſaid territory, not leſs than three, nor more than five ſtates; and the boundaries of the ſtates, as ſoon as Virginia ſhall alter her act of ceſſion and conſent to the ſame, ſhall become fixed and eſtabliſhed as follows, to wit: The weſtern ſtate in the ſaid territory, ſhall be bounded on the Miſſiſippi, the Ohio, and Wabaſh rivers a direct line drawn from the Wabaſh and Poſt Vincent's due north to the territorial line, between the United States and Canada, and by the ſaid territorial line to the lake of the Woods and Miſſiſippi. The middle ſtate ſhall be bounded by the ſaid direct line, the Wabaſh from Poſt Vincent's to the Ohio; by the Ohio, by a direct line drawn due north from the mouth of the Great Miami to the ſaid territorial line, and by the ſaid territorial line. The eaſtern ſtate ſhall be bounded by the laſt mentioned direct line, the Ohio, Pennſylvania, and the ſaid territorial line: Provided however, and it is furthor underſtood and declared, that the boundaries of theſe three ſtates, ſhall be ſubject ſo far to be altered, that if Congreſs hereafter ſhall find it expedient, they ſhall have authority to form one, or two ſtates in that part of the ſaid territory which lies north of an eaſt and weſt line drawn through the ſoutherly bend or extreme of Lake Michigan: and when any of the ſaid ſtates ſhall have 60,000 free inhabitants therein, ſuch ſtate ſhall be admitted by its delegates into the Congreſs of the United States, on an equal footing with the original ſtates in all reſpects whatever; and ſhall be at liberty to form a permament conſtitution and ſtate government: Provided the conſtitution and government ſo to be formed, ſhall be republican, and in conformity to the principles contained in theſe articles, and ſo far as it can be conſiſtent with the general intereſt of the confederacy, ſuch admiſſion ſhall be allowed at an earlier period, and when there may be a leſs number of free inhabitants in the ſtate than 60,000.

Article 6th There ſhall be neither ſlavery nor involuntary ſervitude in the ſaid territory, otherwiſe than in the puniſhment of crimes, whereof the party ſhall have been duly convicted: Provided always, that any perſon eſcaping into the ſame, from whom labour or ſervice is lawfully claimed in any one of the original ſtates, ſuch fugitive may be lawfully reclaimed and conveyed to the perſon claiming his or her labour or ſervice as aforeſaid.'

Such is the preſent government of the Weſtern Territory, and ſuch the political obligations of the adventurers into this fertile and delightful part of the United States.

'* In the ordinance of Congreſs, for the government of this territory, it is provided, that, after the ſaid territory acquires a certain degree of

* *From the anonymous pamphlet before quoted.*

population, it ſhall be divided into ſtates. The eaſtern ſtate, that is thus provided to be made, is bound by the Great Miami on the weſt, and by the Pennſylvania line on the eaſt. The center of this ſtate will fall between the Sioto and the Hockhocking. At the mouth of one of theſe rivers will probably be the ſeat of government for this ſtate: And, if we may indulge the ſublime contemplation of beholding the whole territory of the United States ſettled by an enlightened people, and continued under one extended government—on the river Ohio, and not far from this ſpot, will be the ſeat of empire for the whole dominion. This is central to the whole; itwill beſt accommodate every part; it is the moſt pleaſant, and probably the moſt healthful.'

In this connection we muſt not omit to add, that a ſettlement is commencing, with advantageous proſpects, on the weſtern ſide of the Miſſiſippi, oppoſite the mouth of the Ohio. The ſpot on which the city is to be built, is called NEW MADRID, after the capital of Spain. This ſettlement, which is without the limits of the United States, in the Spaniſh dominions, is conducted by Colonel Morgan, under the patronage of the Spaniſh king.

The ſettlers are to form their own conſtitution, make their own laws, (provided they do not counteract the laws of Spain) chooſe their own magiſtrates and civil officers, and are to enjoy free toleration in religion. They are, however, to be ſubjects of the king of Spain. As an encouragement to ſettlers, they are to be indulged with ſome peculiar commercial privileges.

New Madrid, from its local ſituation and advantitious privileges, is in proſpect of being the great emporium of the weſtern country, unleſs the free navigation of the Miſſiſippi ſhould be opened to the United States. And even ſhould this deſired event take place, which probably will not without a rupture with Spain, this muſt be a place of great trade. For here will naturally center, the immenſe quantities of produce that will be borne down the Illinois, the Miſſiſippi, the Ohio, and their various branches; and if the carriers can find as good a market for their cargoes here, as at New Orleans or the Weſt Indies, and even procure the articles they deſire, they will gladly ſave themſelves the difficulties and dangers of navigating the long Miſſiſippi.

It has been ſuppoſed by ſome, that all ſettlers who go beyond the Miſſiſippi, will be for ever loſt to the United States. There is, I believe, little danger of this, provided they are not provoked to withdraw their friendſhip. The emigrants will be made up of citizens of the United States. They will carry along with them their manners and cuſtoms, their habits of government, religion, and education; and as they are to be indulged with religious freedom, and with the privilege of making their own laws, and of conducting education upon their own plans, theſe *American* habits will undoubtedly be cheriſhed. If ſo, they will be Americans in fact, though nominally the ſubjects of Spain.

It is true Spain will draw a revenue from them, but in return they will enjoy peculiar commercial advantages, the benefit of which will be experienced by the United States, and perhaps be an ample compenſation for the loſs of ſo many citizens as may migrate thither. In ſhort, this ſettlement if conducted with judgment and prudence, may be mutually ſerviceable

both

both to Spain and the United States. It may prevent jealouſies—leſſen national prejudices—promote religious toleration, preſerve harmony, and be a medium of trade reciprocally advantegous.

Beſides, it is well known that empire has been travelling from eaſt to weſt. Probably her laſt and broadeſt ſeat will be America. Here the ſciences, and the arts of civilized life, are to receive their higheſt improvement. Here civil and religous liberty are to flouriſh, unchecked by the cruel hand of civil or eccleſiaſtical tyranny. Here genius, aided by all the improvements of former ages, is to be exerted in humanizing mankind—in expanding and enriching their minds with religious and philoſophical knowledge, and in planning and executing a form of government, which ſhall involve all the excellencies of former governments, with as few of their defects as is conſiſtent with the imperfection of human affairs, and which ſhall be calculated to protect and unite, in a manner conſiſtent with the natural rights of mankind, the largeſt empire that ever exiſted. Elevated with theſe proſpects, which are not merely the viſions of fancy, we cannot but anticipate the period, as not far diſtant, when the AMERICAN EMPIRE will comprehend millions of ſouls, weſt of the Miſſiſippi. Judging upon probable grounds, the Miſſiſippi was never deſigned as the weſtern boundary of the American empire. The God of nature never intended that ſome of the beſt parts of his earth ſhould be inhabited by the ſubjects of a monarch 4000 miles from them. And may we not venture to predict, that, when the rights of mankind ſhall be more fully known; and the knowledge of them is faſt increaſing both in Europe and America, the power of European potentates will be confined to Europe, and their preſent American dominions, become like the United States, free, ſovereign, and independent empires.

VERMONT.

SITUATION and EXTENT.

	Miles.		
Length	155	Between	42° 50′ and 45° North Latitude.
Breadth	60		1° 30′ and 3° Eaſt Longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by Canada; eaſt, by Connecticut river, which divides it from New-Hampſhire; ſouth, by Maſſachuſetts; weſt, by New-York.

Civil Diviſions.] Vermont is divided into the ſeven following counties

Counties.	*Chief Towns.*	*Counties.*	*Chief Towns.*
Bennington,	BENNINGTON.	Chittendon.	
Rutland.		Orange.	
Addiſon.		Windſor.	
Windham.			

These counties are divided into townships, which are generally six miles square. In every township is a reserve of two rights of land, of 350 acres each; one to be appropriated for the support of public schools, the other to be given in fee to the first minister who settles in the township. A part of the townships were granted by the governor of New-Hampshire, and the other part by that of Vermont. In those townships granted by the former, a right of land is reserved for the support of the gospel in foreign parts; in those granted by the latter, a college right, and a right for the support of county grammar schools, are reserved. In these reservations, liberal provision is made for the support of the gospel, and for the promotion of common and collegiate education.

Rivers.] This state, on the east-side of the mountain, is watered by Paupanhoosak, Quechey, Welds, White, Black and West rivers, which run from west to east into Connecticut river; and west of the mountains, by the river Lamoil, over which is a natural stone bridge, seven or eight rods in length, by Onion river and Otter Creek, which empty by one mouth into Lake Champlain, 20 or 30 feet south of St. John's. Otter Creek is navigable for boats 50 miles. The lands adjacent are of an excellent quality, and are annually enriched by the overflowing of the water, occasioned by the melting of the snow on the Green Mountains.

Mountains.] A chain of high mountains, running north and south, divides this state nearly in the center between Connecticut river and Lake Champlain. The height of land is generally from 20 to 30 miles from the river, and about the same distance from the New-York line. The natural growth upon this mountain is hemlock, pine, spruce, and other evergreens; hence it has always a green appearance, and on this account has obtained the descriptive name of *Ver Mons, Green Mountains.* On some high parts of this mountain, snow lies till May, and sometimes till June.

Face of the country, Soil and productions.] The country is generally hilly, but not rocky. It is finely watered, and affords the best of pasturage for cattle. On the banks of the lakes, rivers and rivulets, are many fine tracts of rich interval land. The heavy growth of timber, which is common throughout the state, evince the strength and fertility of the soil. Elm, black birch, maple, ash and bass-wood, grow in the moist low ground; and the banks of the rivers are timbered principally with white pine, intermingled with vales of beech, elm and white oak. The inhabitants cultivate wheat, 25 and 30 bushels of which grow on an acre, rye, barley, oats, Indian corn, &c. The corn, however, is frequently cut off by the early frosts, especially on the mountains and hills. That which grows on the banks of the rivers is not so frequently injured. Flax is raised in considerable quantities, and the soil is good for hemp. Potatoes, pumpkins, and garden roots and vegetables, grow here in great plenty. Large quantities of sugar, of a good quality and flavour, are made from the sugar maple.

Climate] None in the world more healthy. Snow begins to fall commonly in the beginning of November, and is generally gone by the middle of April. During this season, the inhabitants generally enjoy a serene sky, and a keen cold air. The ground is seldom frozen to any great depth, being covered with a great body of snow, before the severe frosts

froſts begin. In the ſpring, the ſnow, in common, is gradually diſſolved by the warm influences of the ſun. In this way the earth is enriched and moiſtened, and ſpring advances with ſurpriſing quickneſs.

Militia, population and character.] There are upwards of 17,000 men upon the militia rolls of this ſtate. Theſe conſiſt of two diviſions, one on the weſt, the other on the eaſt ſide of the mountain. In theſe two diviſions are 7 brigades, which are made up of 21 regiments. From the number of militia, reckoning 5 for one, we may eſtimate the number of inhabitants in the ſtate at 85,000. Others, who reckon 6 for one, eſtimate them at 100,000. The bulk of the inhabitants are emigrants from Connecticut and Maſſachuſetts, and their deſcendants. Their is one ſettlement of Scotch people, which are almoſt the only foreigners in the ſtate. As the characters, the manners, the cuſtom, the laws, the policy, and the religion of the people in Vermont is not ſufficient to ſay they are New Englandmen.

Curioſities.] In the Townſhip of tinmouth, on the ſide of a ſmall hill, is a very curious cave. The chaſm, at its entrance, is about four feet in circumference. Entering this you deſcend 104 feet, and then opens a ſpacious room 20 feet in breath and 100 feet in length. The angle of deſcending is about 45 degrees. The roof of this cavern is of rock, through which the water is continually percolating. The ſtalactites which hang from the roof appear like icicles on the eves of the houſes, and are continually increaſing in number and magnitude. The bottom and ſides are daily incruſting with ſpar and other mineral ſubſtances. On the ſides of this ſubteraneous hall, are tables, chairs. benches, &c. which appear to have been artificially carved. This richly ornamented room, when illuminated with the candles of the guides, has an enchanting effect upon the eye of the ſpectator. If we might be indulged in aſſigning the general cauſe of theſe aſtoniſhing appearances, we ſhould include from the various circumſtances accompanying them, that the ariſe from water filtrating ſlowly through the incumbent *ſtrata*; and taking up in its paſſage a variety of mineral ſubſtances, and becoming thus ſaturated with metallic particles, gradually exuding on the ſurface of the caverns and fiſſures, in a quieſcent ſtate, the aqueous participles evaporate, and leave the mineral ſubſtances to unite according to their affinities.

At the end of this cave is a circular hole, 15 feet deep, apparently hewn out, in a conical form, enlarging gradually as you deſcend, in the form of a ſugar loaf. At the bottom is a ſpring of freſh water, in continual motion, like the boiling of a pot. Its depth has never been ſounded.

Conſtitution.] The inhabitants of Vermont, by their repreſentatives in convention, at Winſor, on the 25th of December, 1777, declared that the territory called Vermont, was, and of right ought to be a free and independant ſtate; and for the purpoſe of maintaining regular government in the ſame, they made a ſolemn declaration of their rights, and ratified a conſtitution, of which the following is an abſtract.

Their declaration, which makes a part of their conſtitution, aſſerts that all men are born equally free —with equal rights and ought to enjoy liberty of conſcience—freedom of the preſs—trial by jury—power to form new ſtates in vacant countries, and to regulate their own internal police

police—that all elections ought to be free—that all power is originally in the people—that government ought to be inſtituted for the common benefit of the community—and that the community have a right to reform or aboliſh government— that every member of ſociety hath a right to protection of life, liberty and property—and in return is bound to contribute his proportion of the expenſe of that protection, and yield his perſonal ſervice when neceſſary—that he ſhall not be obliged to give evidence againſt himſelf—that the people have a right to bear arms—but no ſtanding armies ſhall be maintained in time of peace—that the people have a right to hold themſelves, their houſes, papers, and poſſeſſions free from ſearch or ſeizure—and therefore warrants without oaths firſt made, affording ſufficient foundation for them, are contrary to that right and ought not to be granted—that no perſon ſhall be liable to be tranſported out of this ſtate for trial for any offence committed within this ſtate, &c.

By the frame of government, the ſupreme legiſlative power is veſted in a houſe of repreſentatives of the freemen of the ſtate of Vermont, to be choſen annually by the freemen on the firſt Tueſday in September, and to meet the ſecond Thurſday of the ſucceeding October—this body is veſted with all the powers neceſſary for the legiſlature of a free ſtate—two thirds of the whole number of repreſentatives elected make a quorum.

Each inhabited town throughout the ſtate, has a right to ſend one repreſentative to the aſſembly.

The ſupreme executive power is veſted in a governor, lieutenant-governor, and twelve counſellors to be choſen annually in the ſame manner, and veſted with the ſame powers as in Connecticut.

Every perſon of the age of 21 years, who has reſided in the ſtate one whole year next before the election of the repreſentatives, and is of a quiet, peaceable behaviour, and will bind himſelf by his oath, to do what he ſhall in conſcience judge to be moſt conducive to the beſt good of the ſtate ſhall be entitled to all the privileges of a freeman of this ſtate.

Each member of the houſe of repreſentatives before he takes his ſeat, muſt declare his belief in one God—in future rewards and punishments, and in the divinity of the ſcriptures of the Old and New Teſtament, and muſt profeſs the proteſtant religion.

Courts of juſtice are to be eſtabliſhed in every country throughout the ſtate.

The ſupreme court, and the ſeveral courts of common pleas of this ſtate, beſides the powers uſually exerciſed by ſuch courts, have the powers of a court of chancery, ſo far as relates to perpetuating teſtimony obtaining evidence from places not within the ſtate, and the care of the perſons and eſtates of thoſe who are *non compotes mentis*, &c. All proſecutions are to be commenced in the name and by the authority of the freemen of the ſtate of Vermont. The legiſlature are to regulate entails ſo as to prevent perpetuities.

All field and ſtaff officers, and commiſſioned officers of the army, and all general officers of the militia, ſhall be choſen by the general aſſembly and be commiſſioned by the governor.

Every

Every seventh year, beginning with the year 1785, thirteen persons (none of whom are to be of the council or assembly) shall be chosen by the freemen, and to be called 'the council of censors,' whose duty it shall be to enquire whether the constitution has been preserved inviolate in every part—whether the ligislative and executive powers have been properly exercised—taxes justly laid and collected— the public monies rightly disposed of—and the laws duly executed.—For these purposes, they shall have power to send for persons, papers, &c.—to pass public censures—to order impeachments, and to recommend the repeal of all laws enacted contrary to the principles of the constitution. They are to be vested with these powers for one year only, after the day of their election.

The council of censors, when necessary, may call a convention to meet within two years after their sitting—to alter the constitution—the proposed alterations to be published at least six months before the election of delegates to such convention.

Chief Town.] BENNINGTON is the principal town in Vermont. It is situated in the south-west corner of the state near the foot of the Green Mountain. Its public buildings are a church for Congregationalists, a court-house and gaol. It has a number of elegant houses, and is a flourishing town. Near the center of the town is *Mount Anthony*, which rises very high in the form of a sugar-loaf. The assembly commonly hold their sessions at Windsor.

*** *For the new discoveries on the north-west coast of America, see the* Voyages *of Captains* Portlock *and* Dixon.

†‡† *For the discoveries in the South Seas, see the* History of New Holland, with an introductory Preface on Banishment, by the Right Hon. Lord Aukland.

‡‖‡ *For the British settlements in New South Wales, see* Governor Phillip's Voyage to Botany Bay, *which includes several new discoveries.*

§‡§ *Also* Fleurieu's Discoveries of the French in the South Sea.

British American Dominions.

NEW BRITAIN.

UNDER this name is comprehended all the tracts of country, which lies north of Canada, commonly called the Eskimaux country, including Labrador, now North and South Wales; said to be 850 miles long, and 750 broad.

To speak generally, this is a mountainous, frozen, barren country, abounding with lakes, rivers and bays, that furnish plenty of fish. The fur of the various animals is close, soft and warm. The fishery and the fur trade are the only things which render this country valuable. This trade is in the hands of a company of nine or ten persons, who received a charter in 1670, and whose profits are not inconsiderable. One year they carried from Great-Britain, articles to the amount of £.16,060; and in return, carried furs and fish to the amount of £.29,380.

The

The country is very thinly inhabited, by a people reſembling the Laplanders, and the other nations in the north-weſtern part of Europe, from whence their anceſtors probably migrated.

CANADA.

SITUATION and EXTENT.

Miles.

Length 600, Breadth 200 } Between { 61° and 81° Weſt Longitude from London. 45° and 52° North Latitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by New-Britain; eaſt, by the Bay of St. Lawrence; ſouth, by Nova-Scotia and the United ſtates; weſt, by unknown lands.

Rivers.] The principal are, the Outtauais, St. John's Seguina, Desprairis and Trois Rivieres, which are large, bold and deep, and are all ſwallowed up by the river St. Lawrence, which falls into the ocean at Cape Roſieres, by a mouth ninety miles broad.

Chief Towns.] QUEBEC is the capital of Canada. It is built on the bank of St. Lawrence river, on a rock, in two diviſions, 320 miles from the ſea, and contained in 1784, 6,472 inhabitants. One hundred and ſeventy miles from Quebec, as you aſcend the St. Lawrence, ſtands MONTREAL, on a beautiful iſland in the river. It is nearly as large as Quebec.

Population.] In 1784, a cenſus of the inhabitants of the province of Quebec was taken, by order of General Haldimand, when they amounted to 113,012 Engliſh and French, excluſive of the Loyaliſts, who have lately ſettled in the upper parts of the province, to the number, it is ſaid, of 10,000.

Conſtitution.] The conſtitution of the province is founded on the 14th of George the IIId, called the Quebec Bill. By this bill the legiſlative power is veſted in the governor and legiſlative council. The council is compoſed of the lieutenant-governor, chief juſtice and ſecretary for the time being, and twenty other members, nearly one half of whom are French. They are appointed by the crown, and received £.100 a year as a ſalary. Their power extends to almoſt all the neceſſary purpoſes of government, except the levying of taxes, wherein the ſaid ſtatute inhibits, whereby Great-Britain pays the ſalaries to the counſellors, and all the expences of the civil liſt of the province, which amount to £.25,000 per annum, excluſive of the governor-general's ſalary.

Trade.] The amount of the exports from the province of Quebec in the year 1786, was £.343,262 : 19 : 6. The amount of imports in the ſame year was £.325,116. The exports conſiſted of wheat, flour, biſcuit, flax-ſeed, lumber of various kinds, fiſh, pot-aſh, oil, ginſeng and other

other medicinal roots, but principally of furs and peltries, to the amount of £.285,977. The imports consisted of rum, brandy, molasses, coffee, sugar, wines, tobacco, salt, chocolate, provisions for the troops and dry goods.

History.] This country was discovered by the English, as early as about 1497, and settled by the French in 1608, who kept possession of it till 1763, when, after a long and bloody war, it fell into the hands of the British, to whom it has ever since belonged.

NOVA SCOTIA.

	Miles		
Length	350	Between	42° and 49° North Latitude.
Breadth	250		60° and 67° West Longitude from London.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED west, by the eastern boundary of the United States; north, by the river St. Lawrence; east and south, by the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the Atlantic Ocean. It has about 90 leagues of sea coast, on the Atlantic Ocean. In 1784, this province was divided into two governments. One of the governments is called *New Brunswick*, and lies bordering on the United States.

Rivers and Bays.] The rivers Risgouche and Nipisiguit run from west to east, and fall into the Bay of St. Lawrence. St. John's Passamagnadi, and St. Croix, run from north to south into the Bay of Fundy, or the sea. Nova Scotia is indented with numerous bays, which afford many commodious, bold harbours. The bay of Fundy is the largest of the bays, and extends 50 leagues into the country. Here the ebb and flow of the tide is from 45 to 60 feet.

Climate, Soil, Productions and Trade.] During a great part of the year the atmosphere is clouded with thick fog, which renders it unhealthy for the inhabitants; and four or five months it is intensely cold. A great part of this country lies in forest, and the soil, in most parts, is thin and barren. On the banks of the rivers, and some other parts, the soil is good; many of the bays, and salt water rivers, and some parts of the sea coast, are bordered with tracts of salt marsh. The inhabitants do not raise provision enough for home consumption. They subsist principally by the lumber trade, which is supplied by their forests; and by the fishery, which is very profitable. The fishery on the sea coast of the island of Cape Breton, in the year 1743, while in possession of the French, yielded 1,149,000 quintals of dry fish, and 3,900,000 quintals of mud fish; the value of both, including 3116¼ tons of train oil, was estimated at £.926,577:10 sterling. Five hundred and sixty-four ships, besides shallops, and 27,000 seamen were employed in this trade.

Chief Towns.] HALIFAX is the capital of Nova Scotia, and stands on Chebucto Bay. has a good harbour, sufficiently large and safe to shelter

ſhelter a ſquadron of ſhips through the winter. The town has an entrenchment, and is ſtrengthened with forts of timber. It is commodiouſly ſituated for the fiſhery. ANNAPOLIS ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the Bay of Fundy, and has one of the fineſt harbours in the world. ST. JOHN'S is a new ſettlement at the mouth of the river of the ſame name. Since the concluſion of the war, there have been large emigrations of the refugees from the United States of this province. They have built ſeveral new towns, the largeſt of which is SHELBURNE, which is ſaid to contain 9000 inhabitants.

Hiſtory and Government.] Notwithſtanding the forbidding aſpect of this country, it was here that ſome of the firſt European ſettlements were made. The firſt grant of land in it, was made by James I, to his ſecretary William Alexander, who named it Nova Scotia, or New Scotland.—Since that time it has frequently changed from one private proprietor to another, and repeatedly from the French to the Engliſh. At the peace of Utrecht it was confirmed to the Engliſh, under whoſe government it has ever ſince continued.

SPANISH DOMINIONS.

EAST AND WEST FLORIDA.

Miles.

Length 600, Breadth 130 } Between { 25° and 31° North Latitude. 5° and 17° Weſt Longitude from Philadelphia.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by Georgia; eaſt, by the Atlantic Ocean; ſouth by the Gulf of Mexico; weſt by the Miſſiſippi: lying in the form of an *L*.

Rivers.] St John's and Indian rivers, which empty into the Atlantic Ocean; Seguana, Apalachicola, Chatahatchi, Eſcambia, Mobile, Paſcagoula and Pearl rivers, all of which riſe in Georgia, and run ſoutherly into the Gulf of Mexico.

Climate.] Very little different from that of Georgia.

Soil and productions.] There are, in this country, a great variety of ſoils.—The eaſtern part of it, near and about St. Auguſtine, is far the moſt unfruitful; yet even here two crops of Indian corn a year are produced. The banks of the rivers which water the Floridas, and the parts contigious, are of a ſuperiour quality, and well adapted to the culture of rice and corn, while the more interiour country, which is high and pleaſant, abounds with wood of almoſt every kind; particularly white and red oak, pine, hiccory, cypreſs, red and white cedar. The intervals between the hilly part of this country are extremely rich, and produce ſpontaneouſly

taneouſly the fruits and vegetables that are common to Georgia and the Carolinas. But this country is rendered valuable in a peculiar manner, by the extenſive ranges for cattle.

Chief Towns.] St. Augustine, the capital of E. Florida, is ſituated on the ſea coaſt—is of an oblong figure, and interſected by four ſtreets, which cut each other at right angles. The town is fortified with baſtions, and encloſed with a ditch. It is likewiſe defended by a caſtle, called Fort St. John, which is well appointed as to ordnance. The north and ſouth breakers, at the entrance of the harbour, form two channels, whoſe bars have eight feet water.

The principal town in Weſt Florida is Pensacola. It lies along the beach, and, like St. Auguſtine, is of an oblong form.—The water-approach to the town, except for ſmall veſſels, is obſtructed by a low and ſandy ſhore. The bay, however, on which the town ſtands, forms a very commodious harbour, and veſſels may ride here ſecure from every wind.

Hiſtory.] The Floridas have experienced the viciſſitudes of war, and frequently changed maſters, belonging alternately to the French and Spaniards. It was ceded by the latter to the Engliſh at the peace of 1763, During the laſt war it was again reduced by the arms of his Catholic Majeſty, and it was guaranteed to the crown of Spain by the late definitive treaty. Its firſt diſcoverer was Sebaſtian Cabot, in 1497.

LOUISIANA.

Boundaries.] Bounded by the Miſſiſippi eaſt; by the Gulph of Mexico ſouth; by New Mexico weſt; and runs indefinitely north.

Rivers.] It is interſected by a number of fine rivers, among which are the Natchitoches, which empties into the Miſſiſippi at Point Coupee, and the Adayes or Mexicano river, emptying into the Gulph of Mexico.

Capital.] New Orleans It ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the Miſſiſippi, 105 miles from its mouth, in latitude 30° 2′ north. In the beginning of the laſt year it contained about 1100 houſes, ſeven-eighths of which were conſumed by fire, in the ſpace of five hours, on the 19th of March, 1788. It is now faſt rebuilding. Its advantages for trade are very great. Situated on a noble river, in a fertile and healthy country, within two weeks ſail of Mexico by ſea, and ſtill nearer to the Britiſh, French and Spaniſh Weſt-India iſlands, with a moral certainty of its becoming the general receptacle for the produce of that extenſive and valuable country on the Miſſiſippi and Ohio, are ſufficient to enſure its future growth and commercial importance.

Religion, &c.] The greater part of the white inhabitants are Roman Catholics. They are governed by a viceroy from Spain, and their number is unknown.

Climate, Soil and Produce.] Louiſiana is agreeably ſituated between the extremes of heat and cold. Its climate varies as it extends towards the north. The ſouthern parts, lying within the reach of the refreſhing breezes

breezes from the ſea, are not ſcorched like thoſe under the ſame latitudes in Africa; and its northern regions are colder than thoſe of Europe under the ſame parallels, with a wholeſome ſerene air. To judge of the produce to be expected from the ſoil of Louiſiana, let us turn our eyes to Egypt, Arabia Felix, Perſia, India, China and Japan, all lying in correſponding latitudes. Of theſe, China alone has a tolerable government; and yet it muſt be acknowledged they all are, or have been, famous for their riches and fertility. From the favourableneſs of the climate, two annual crops of Indian corn, as well as rice, may be produced; and the ſoil, with little cultivation, would furniſh grain of every kind in the greateſt abundance. Their timber is as fine as any in the world, and the quantities of live oak, aſh, mulberry, walnut, cherry, cypreſs and cedar, are aſtoniſhing. The neighbourhood of the Miſſiſippi, beſides, furniſhes the richeſt fruits in great variety; the ſoil is particularly adapted for hemp, flax and tobacco; and indigo is at this time a ſtaple commodity, which commonly yields the planter three or four cuttings a year. In a word, whatever is rich and rare in the moſt deſirable climates in Europe, ſeems to be the ſpontaneous production of this delightful country. The Miſſiſippi furniſhes in great plenty ſeveral ſorts of fiſh, particularly perch, pike, ſturgeon and eels.

Hiſtory.] The Miſſiſippi, on which the fine country of Louiſiana is ſituated, was firſt diſcovered by Ferdinand de Soto, in 1541. Monſieur de la Salle was the firſt who traverſed it. He, in the year 1682, having paſſed down to the mouth of the Miſſiſippi, and ſurveyed the adjacent country, returned to Canada, from whence he took paſſage to France.

From the flattering accounts which he gave of the country, and the conſequential advantages that would accrue from ſettling a colony in thoſe parts, Louis XIV. was induced to eſtabliſh a company for the purpoſe. Accordingly a ſquadron of four veſſels amply provided with men and proviſions, under the command of Monſieur de la Salle, embarked, with an intention to ſettle near the mouths of the Miſſiſippi. But he unintentionally ſailed 100 leagus to the weſtward of it, where he attempted to eſtabliſh a colony; but, through the unfavourableneſs of the climate, moſt of his men miſerably periſhed, and he himſelf was villainouſly murdered, not long after, by two of his own men. Monſieur Ibberville ſucceeded him in his laudable attempts. He, after two ſucceſsful voyages, died while preparing for a third. Crozat ſucceeded him; and in 1712, the king gave him Louiſiana. This grant continued but a ſhort time after the death of Louis XIV. In 1763 Louiſiana was ceded to the king of Spain, to whom it now belongs.

NEW MEXICO AND CALIFORNIA.

Miles.
Length 2000 } Between { 90° and 126° West Long. from London.
Breadth 1600 } { 23° and 43° North Latitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by unknown lands; east, by Louisiana; south, by Old Mexico and the Pacific Ocean; west, by the ocean.

Divisions.	*Subdivisions.*	*Chief Towns.*
North-east division.	New Mexico Proper,	SANTA FE, W. Longitude 104°. North Latitude 36°.
South-east division,	Apacheira,	St. Antonio.
South division,	Sonora,	Tuape.
West division,	California, a peninsula,	St. Juah.

Climate, soil and productions.] The climate of this country, if we may judge from its situation, must be very agreeable. Towards the close of the last century, the Jesuits, who had great merit in exploring the neglected province of California, and in civilizing its rude inhabitants, seem studiously to have depreciated this country, for political reasons, by representing the climate as so disagreeable and unwholesome, and the soil as so barren, that nothing but their zealous endeavours to convert the natives, could have induced them to settle there. The falsehood of this representation, however, has since been detected, and a very favourable account has been given of the climate and soil. A valuable pearl fishery has been found on its coasts, and mines of gold have been discovered of a very promising appearance. In California, there falls in the morning a great quantity of dew, which, settling on the rose-leaves, candies, and becomes hard like manna, having all the sweetness of refined sugar, without its whiteness. There is also another very singular natural production. In the heart of the country there are plains of salt, quite firm, and clear as crystal, which, considering the vast quantities of fish found on its coasts, might render it an invaluable acquisition to an industrious nation.

Inhabitants and character.] The number of inhabitants, as far as can be known, do not exceed 300,000. The characteristics of the Californians, are stupidity and insensibility; want of knowledge and reflection; inconstancy, impetuosity, and blindness of appetite; an excessive sloth, and abhorrence of all labour and fatigue; an excessive love of pleasure and amusement of every kind, however trifling or brutal; pusillanimity; and, in fine, a most wretched want of every thing which constitutes the real man, and renders him rational, inventive, tractable, and useful to himself and society.

History.] Cortes, the great conqueror of Mexico, discovered the extensive peninsula of California in the year 1536, after enduring incredible hardships, and encountering dangers of almost every species. During a long period it continued to be so little frequented, that even its form was unknown, and in most maps it was represented as an island. Sir Francis Drake was the first who took possession of it in 1578, and his right was confirmed by the principal king or chief in the whole country.

OLD

OLD MEXICO, OR NEW SPAIN.

Miles.
Length 2000 } Between { 80° and 110° West Long. from London
Breadth 600 } { 8° and 30° North Latitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by New Mexico; north-east, by the Gulph of Mexico; south-east, by Terra Firma; south-west, by the Pacific Ocean; divided into the three following audiences, viz.

Audiences.	*Chief Towns.*
Galicia, or Guadalajarra,	Guadalajarra.
Mexico Proper,	Mexico, N. Lat. 19° 54′ Acapulco. Vera Cruz.
Guatimala,	Guatimala.

Climate, soil and productions.] Mexico, lying principally in the torrid zone, is exceſſively hot. This country is mountainous in the interior parts, but along the eaſtern ſhore it is flat and marſhy, and is overflowing in the rainy ſeaſons, which renders it very unhealthy. The trees are clothed with perpetual verdure, and bloſſom and bear almoſt the whole year round. The cotton and cedar-trees, and thoſe which bear the cocoa, of which chocolate is made, abound here. Mexico, like all the tropical countries, is rather more abundant in fruit than in grain. Pine-apples, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, &c. are here in great plenty and perfection. Mexico produces alſo a great quantity of ſugar, eſpecially towards the Gulf of Mexico.

The chief mines of gold are in Veragua and New Granada, bordering upon Darien and Terra Firma. Thoſe of ſilver, which are much more rich, as well as numerous, are found in ſeveral parts, particularly in the province of Mexico.

The mines of both kinds are always found in the moſt barren and mountanous parts of the country; nature making amends in one reſpect for defects in another.

Of the gold and ſilver which the mines of Mexico afford, great things have been ſaid. Thoſe who have enquired moſt into the ſubject compute the revenues at twenty-four millions of money; and this account is probably juſt, ſince it is well known that this, with the other Spaniſh provinces is South America, ſupply the whole world with ſilver.

The Spaniſh commerce in the article of cocoa is immenſe. It grows on a tree of a middling ſize, which bears a pod about the ſize of a cucumber, containing the cocoa. It is ſaid that a ſmall garden of cocoas, produces to the owner 20,000 crowns a year.

Inhabitants, character and government.] The preſent inhabitants of Mexico may be divided into whites, Indians and negroes. The whites are born in Old Spain, or they are creoles, that is, natives of Spaniſh America. The former are chiefly employed in government and trade, and have nearly the ſame character with the Spaniards in Europe; only a larger

larger ſhare of pride; for they conſider themſelves as entitled to every high diſtinction as natives of Europe, and look on the other inhabitants as many degrees beneath them. The creoles have all the bad qualities of the Spaniards, from whom they are deſcended, without that courage, firmneſs and patience, which make the praiſeworthy part of the Spaniſh character. Naturally weak and effeminate, they dedicate the greateſt part of their lives to loitering and inactive pleaſures. Luxurious without variety or elegance, and expenſive with great parade, and little convenience, their character is nothing more than a grave, ſpecious inſignificance. From idleneſs and conſtitution, their whole buſineſs is amour and intrigue; their ladies, of conſequence, are not diſtinguiſhed for their chaſtity or domeſtic virtues.

The Indians, who, notwithſtanding the devaſtations of the firſt invaders, remain in great numbers, are become, by continual oppreſſion and indignity, a dejected, timorous, and miſerable race of mortals.

The blacks here, like thoſe in other parts of the world, are ſtubborn, robuſt and hardy, and as well adapted for the groſs and inhuman ſlavery they endure, as any human beings. This may ſerve for the general character, not only of the Mexicans, but for the greater part of the Spaniſh colonies in South America.

The civil government of Mexico is adminiſtered by tribunals, called audiences. In theſe courts the viceroy of the king of Spain preſides. His employment is the greateſt truſt and power his catholic majeſty has at his diſpoſal, and is, perhaps, the richeſt government entruſted to any ſubject in the world. The viceroy continues in office but three years.

The clergy are extremely numerous in Mexico. The prieſts, monks and nuns of all orders, make a fifth part of the white inhabitants, both here and in other parts of Spaniſh America.

Chief towns.] Mexico, the capital of this place, is ſituated on a large plain, environed by mountains of ſuch height, that, though within the torrid zone, the temperature of its climate is mild and healthful.

All the buildings are convenient; and the public edifices, eſpecially the churches, are magnificent. The revenue of the grand cathedral amounts to near £.80,000 ſterling a year, of which the archbiſhop has £.15,000, beſides vaſt ſums ariſing from perquiſites. The inhabitants are reckoned at 150,000, who draw annually from the mines above ten millions of money, excluſive of the vaſt ſums ſecreted, and applied to private uſes; yet with theſe almoſt incredible treaſures, the people may be reckoned poor, as moſt of them live beyond their fortunes, and commonly terminate a life of profuſion, in extreme indigence.

Acapulco ſtands on a bay of the South Sea, about 210 miles ſouth-eaſt of Mexico. In this harbour, which is very commodious, the Manilla galleon takes in at leaſt ten millions of dollars, in return for the goods ſhe brings thither, and for the payment of the Spaniſh garriſons in the Philippine iſles.

Hiſtory.] The empire of Mexico was ſubdued by Cortes, in the year 1521. Montezuma was at that time emperor of Mexico. In the courſe of the war, he was treacherouſly taken by Cortes, and held as a priſoner. During the impriſonment of Montezuma, Cortes and his army had made repeated attacks on his ſubjects, but without ſucceſs. Cortes was now

determined, as his laſt reſource, to try what effect the interpoſition of Montezuma might have to ſooth, or overawe his ſubjects. This unfortunate prince, at the mercy of the tracherous Spaniards, and reduced to the ſad neceſſity of becoming the inſtrument of his own diſgrace, and of the ſlavery of his ſubjects, advanced to the battlements in his royal robes, with all the pomp in which he uſed to appear on ſolemn occaſions. At ſight of their ſovereign, whom they had long been accuſtomed to honour, and almoſt to revere as a god, the weapons dropped from their hands, every tongue was ſilent, all bowed their heads, and many proſtrated themſelves on the ground. Montezuma addreſſed them with every argument that could mitigate their rage, or perſuade them to ceaſe from hoſtilities. When he ended his diſcourſe, a ſullen murmur of diſapprobation ran through the crowd; to this ſucceeded reproaches and threats; and their fury riſing in a moment, they violently poured in whole flights of arrows, and vollies of ſtones, upon their unhappy monarch; two of the arrows ſtruck him in the body, which, with the blow of a ſtone on his temple, put an end to his life. Guatimozin ſucceeded Montezuma, and mantained a vigorous oppoſition againſt the aſſaults of Cortes. But he like his predeceſſor, after a noble defence, was forced to ſubmit. Previous to this, being aware of his impending fate, he had ordered that all his treaſures ſhould be thrown into the lake. While a priſoner, on ſuſpicion of his having concealed his treaſure, he was put to the torture, which was done by laying him on burning coals; but he bore whatever the refined cruelty of his tormentors could inflict, with the invincible fortitude of an American warrior. One of his chief favourites, his fellow ſufferer, being overcome by the violence of the anguiſh, turned a dejected eye towards his maſter, which ſeemed to implore his permiſſion to reveal all that he knew. But the high ſpirited prince darted on him a look of authority, mingled with ſcorn, and checked his weakneſs by aſking, 'Am I now repoſing upon a bed of flowers?' Overawed by the reproach, he perſevered in dutiful ſilence, and expired. Cortes, aſhamed of a ſcene ſo horrid, reſcued the royal victim from the hands of his torturers, and prolonged a life for new indignities and ſufferings. Cortes died in Spain, in the year 1547, in the 62d year of his age. Envied by his contemporaries, and ill requited by the court which he ſerved, he has been admired and celebrated by ſucceeding ages. By his own deſire he was carried to Mexico, and buried there.

SOUTH AMERICA,

IS a peninſula, joined to North America by the Iſthmus of Darien, and divided as follows:

Countries.	*Chief Towns.*	*Belonging to*
Terra Firma,	Panama,	Spain.
Peru,	Lima,	Spain.

Amazonia

Countries.	*Chief Towns.*	*Belonging to*
Amazonia,	St. Pedro,	Spain.
Guiana,	Surinam,	Dutch.
Brazil,	St. Sebaſtian,	Portugal.
Paragua, or La Plata,	Buenos Ayres,	Spain.
Chili,	St. Jago,	Spain.
Patagonia,		The natives.

TERRA FIRMA, OR CASTILE DEL ORO.

Miles.
Length 1400 } Between { 60° and 82° Weſt Longitude.
Breadth 700 } { The Equator, and 12° North Latitude,

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by the Atlantic Ocean; eaſt, by the ſame ocean and Surinam; ſouth, by Amozonia and Peru; weſt, by the Pacific Ocean.

Climate, ſoil and productions.] The climate here, eſpecially in the northern parts, is extremely hot and ſultry during the whole year. From the month of May to the end of November, the ſeaſon called winter by the inhabitants, is almoſt a continual ſucceſſion of thunder, rain and tempeſts; the clouds precipitating the rains with ſuch impetuoſity, that the low lands exhibit the appearance of an ocean. Great part of the country is of conſequence moſt continually flooded; and this, together with the exceſſive heat, ſo impregnates the air with vapours, that in many provinces, particularly about Popayan and Porto-Bello, it is extremely unwholeſome. The ſoil of this country is very different, the inland parts being exceedingly rich and fertile, the coaſts ſandy and barren. It is impoſſible to view without admiration, the perpetual verdure of the woods, the luxuriancy of the plains, and the towering height of the mountains. This country produces corn, ſugar, tobacco and fruits of all kinds; the moſt remarkable is that of the manzanillo tree. It bears fruit reſembling an apple, but which, under this ſpecious appearance, contains the moſt ſubtile poiſon. The bean of Carthagena is the fruit a of ſpecies of willow, about the bigneſs of a bean, and is an excellent and never failing remedy for the bite of the moſt venemous ſerpents, which are very frequent all over this country. Among the natural merchandize of Terra Firma, the pearls found on the coaſt, particularly in the bay of Panama, are not the leaſt conſiderable. An immenſe number of negroe ſlaves are employed in fiſhing for theſe, and have arrived at a wonderful dexterity in this occupation. They are ſometimes, however devoured by ſharks, while they dive to the bottom, or are cruſhed againſt the ſhelves of the rocks.

Chief towns.] PANAMA is the capital of Terra Firma Proper, and is ſituated upon a capacious bay, to which it gives its name. It is the great receptacle of the vaſt quantities of gold and ſilver, with other rich merchandize,

chandize, from all parts of Peru and Chili: here they are lodged in ſtore-houſes, till the proper ſeaſon arrives to tranſport them to Europe.

Porto Bello is ſituated cloſe to the ſea, on the declivity of a mountain which ſurrounds the whole harbour. The convenience and the ſafety of this harbour is ſuch that Columbus, who firſt diſcovered it, gave it the name of Porto Bello, or the fine Harbour.

Hiſtory.] This part of South America was diſcovered by Columbus, in his third voyage to this continent. It was ſubdued and ſettled by the Spaniards about the year 1514, after deſtroying, with great inhumanity, ſeveral millions of the natives. This country was called Terra Firma, on account of its being the firſt part of the continent which was diſcovered, all the lands diſcovered previous to this being iſlands.

PERU.

Miles.
Length 1800, Breadth 500 } Between { 60° and 81° Weſt Longitude. The Equator and 25° South Latitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by Terra Firma; eaſt, by the Andes: ſouth, by Chili; weſt by the Pacific Ocean.

Rivers.] A prodigious number of rivers riſe in the Andes, and run through this country, among which are Granada or Cagdalena, Orinoco and Amazon. The laſt has its ſource in Peru, and after running eaſtwards upwards of 3000 miles, falls into the Atlantic ocean. This river, like all the tropical rivers annually overflows its banks.

Climate, ſoil, and productions.] Though Peru lies within the torrid zone, yet, having the pacific ocean on the weſt, and the Andes on the eaſt, the air is not ſo ſultry as is uſual in tropical countries. The ſky is generally cloudy, ſo that the inhabitants are ſhielded from the direct rays of the ſun; but what is extremely ſingular, it never rains in Peru. This defect, however, is ſufficiently ſupplied by a ſoft and gentle dew, which falls every night on the ground, and ſo refreſhes the plants and graſs, as to produce in many places the greateſt fertility. In the inland parts of Peru, and by the banks of the rivers, the ſoil is generally very fertile, but along the ſea coaſt it is a barren ſand. The productions of this country are, Indian corn, wheat, balſam, ſugar, wine, cotton—cattle, deer, poultry, parrots, wild fowls, lions, bears, monkeys, &c. Their ſheep are large and work as beaſts of burden. Another extraordinary animal here is the vicunna, or Indian goat, in which is found the bezoar ſtone, celebrated for expelling poiſons. The province of Quito abounds with cedar, cocoa, palm-trees, and the kinguenna, which affords the Peruvian or Jeſuits bark; alſo the ſtorax, guaiacum, and ſeveral other gums and drugs. Gold and ſilver mines are found in every province, but thoſe of Potoſi are the richeſt. The mountains of Potiſi alone, is ſaid to have yeilded to the Spaniards,

Spaniards, the firſt forty years they were in poſſeſſion of it, two thouſand millions of pieces of eight.

Government.] Peru is governed by a viceroy, who is abſolute; but is being impoſſible for him to ſuperintend the whole extent of his government, he delegates a part of his authority to the ſeveral audiences and courts, eſtabliſhed at different places throughout his dominions.

Chief Towns.] Lima, the capital of Peru, and reſidence of the viceroy, is large, magnificient and populous; for the ſplendour of its inhabitants, the grandeur of its public feſtivals, the extent of its commerce, and, the delightfulneſs of its climate, is ſuperior to all cities in South America. Theſe eminent advantages are however, conſiderably overbalanced by the dreadful earthquakes which frequently happen here. In the year 1747 a moſt tremendous earthquake laid three fourths of this city level with the ground, and entirely demoliſhed Callao, the port town belonging to it. Never was any deſtruction more complete or terrible: but one, of 3,000 inhabitants, being left to record this dreadful calamity, and he by a providence the moſt ſingular and extraordinary imaginable.

Lima contains 60,000 inhabitants, of whom the whites amount to a ſixth part.

All travellers ſpeak with amazement of the decoration of the churches with gold, ſilver and precious ſtones, which load and ornament even the walls. Quito is next to Lima in populouſneſs.

Hiſtory.] The Spaniards firſt viſited Peru in 1526. Pizarro, with an army of about 160 men, after a ſeries of treacherous and cruel acts, made a conqueſt of the whole country, for the king of Spain, in 1533, to whom it has ever ſince been ſubject. The natives have frequently attempted to regain their liberty, but have hitherto been unſucceſsful. Some late inſurrections have happened, but the conſequences are not yet particularly known.

CHILI.

Miles.			
Length 1200	Between	25° and 45° South Latitude.	
Breadth 500		65° and 85° Weſt Longitude.	

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by Peru; Eaſt, by La Plata; ſouth, by Patagonia; weſt, by the Pacific ocean.

Climate, ſoil, and productions.] The air of Chili, though in a hot climate, is remarkably temperate, occaſioned by refreſhing breezes from the ſea, and the cool winds from the top of the Andes, which are covered with eternal ſnows. This country is free from lightning, and although thunder is frequently heard, it is far up in the mountain. Spring begins here about the middle of Auguſt, and continues till November. It is ſummer from November till February. Autumn continues till May; and winter till Auguſt. It rarely ſnows in the vallies, though the mountains are always covered. This country is entirely free from all kinds of

of ravenous beaſts, poiſonous animals and vermin; not even ſo much as a fly to be found here. The ſoil is extremely fertile, being watered with numberleſs little rivulets from the mountains. It produces, in the greateſt abundance, apples, pears plumbs, peaches, quinces, apricots, almonds, olives, grapes, cocoa-nuts, figs, and ſtrawberries as large as pears,—wheat, oats, corn, garden flowers and fruits of almoſt every kind. It abounds in gold, ſilver, and lead mines. and the rivers themſelves roll on golden ſands. But their ſtaple commodity is cattle; they have them in ſuch abundance, as frequently to caſt the fleſh into the rivers, reſerving the hides, tallow and tongues for exportation.

Hiſtory, inhabitants, &c.] The Spaniards made ſeveral attempts to reduce this country, but with no great ſucceſs till the year 1541, when they built the capital St. Jago, now the reſidence of the Spaniſh governor, and a biſhop's ſee; and afterwards Coquimbo, Conception, and Baldivia. The natives are remarkable for wit, fortitude and patience; and the Spaniards to this day have never been able to ſubdue them; they continue ſtill maſters of part of the inland country. There have lately been ſome formidable inſurrections againſt the Spaniards by the natives, which have greatly alarmed the Spaniſh court.

PARAGUA, or LAPLATA.

	Miles.		
Length	1500	Between	12° and 37° South Latitude.
Breadth	1000		50° and 75° Weſt Longitude,

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by Amazonia; eaſt, by Brazil; ſouth, by Patagonia; weſt by Peru and Chili.

Rivers and Mountains.] This country, beſides an infinite number of ſmall rivers, is watered by three principal ones, which united near the ſea, form the famous Rio de la Plata, or Plate river, and which annually overflow their banks, and, on their receſs, leave them enriched with a ſlime, that produces great plenty of whateve is committed to it. This river, where it unites with the ocean, is 150 miles broad. At 100 miles from its mouth a ſhip in the middle of the channel cannot be ſeen from either ſhore; and at Buenos Ayres, 100 miles ſtill further back, one cannot diſcern the oppoſite ſhore. There are no mountains of conſequence here excepting that remarkable chain which divides South America, called the Andes. The height of Chimborazo, the moſt elevated point in theſe mountains is 20,280 feet; which is above 5000 feet higher than any other mountains in the known world.

Climate, Soil Produce.] This country conſiſts of extenſive plains, 300 leagues over except on the eaſt, where it is ſeparated by high mountains from Brazil. La Plata is a moſt deſirable climate, and one of the moſt fruitful countries in the world. The cotton and tobacco produced here, with the herb called Paragua, which is peculiar to this country, could alone be ſufficient to form a flouriſhing commerce. There are here alſo ſeveral gold and ſilver mines.

Chief.

Chief Towns.] BUENOS AYRES, the capital of La Plata, is the moſt conſiderable ſea port town in South America. It is ſituated on the ſouth ſide of the river La Plata, 200 miles from the mouth of it. The river is upwards of 20 miles broad at this place From this town a great part of the treaſure of Chili and Peru is exported to Old Spain. The natives of Tacuman are ſaid to have wooden houſes built on wheels, which they draw from place to place as occaſion requires.

Hiſtory and Religion.] The Spaniards firſt diſcovered this country in the year of 1515, and founded the town of Buenos Ayres in 1535. Moſt of the country is ſtill inhabited by native Americans. The Jeſuits have been indefatigable in their endeavours to convert the Indians to the belief of their religion, and to introduce among them the art of civilized life, and have met with ſurpriſing ſucceſs. It is ſaid that above 340,000 families, ſeveral years ago, were ſubject to the Jeſuits, living in obedience and an awe, bordering on adoration, yet procured without any violence or conſtraint. In 1767, the Jeſuits were ſent out of America, by royal authority, and their ſubjects were put upon the ſame footing with the reſt of the country.

BRAZIL, belonging to PORTUGAL.

	Miles.		
Length	2500	Between	35° and 60° Weſt Longitude.
Breadth	700		The Equator and 35° South Latitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by the mouth of the river Amazon and the Atlantic Ocean; eaſt, by the ſame ocean: ſouth, by the mouth of the river La Plata; weſt, by the chain of mountains, which divides it from Paragua, and the country of the Amazons.

Air, Soil and Produce.] The air of this country is hot, but healthy, and the ſoil exceedingly fertile in maize, millet, rice, fruits, ſaffron, balſam of capivi, ginger, indigo, amber, roſin, train oil, cotton, the beſt of tobacco, fine ſugar, brazil-wood, &c. Here alſo are mines of gold, ſilver and diamonds, and a great quantity of excellent cryſtal and jaſper. This country alſo abounds in cattle, apes, parrots, and beautiful birds. The rivers and lakes are ſtored with fiſh, and there is a whale fiſhery on the coaſt.

Inhabitants, Religion, &c.] The coaſt of this large country is only known; the natives ſtill poſſeſs the inland parts; whereof theſe towards the north are called Tapayers, and thoſe in the ſouth Tupinamboys. Theſe natives ſeem to have little religion, and no temple or place for public worſhip; but yet are ſaid to believe a future ſtate, and have ſome notion of rewards and puniſhments after this life.

Hiſtory, &c.] The Portugueſe diſcovered this country in the year 1500, but did not plant it till the year 1549, when they took poſſeſſion of All Saints Bay, and built the city of St. Salvador, which is now the reſidence

of the viceroy and archbishop. The Dutch invaded Brazil in 1623, and subdued the northren provinces; but the Portuguese agreed in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tons of gold, to relinquish their interest in this country, which was accepted, and the Portuguese remained in peaceable possession of all Brazil till about the end of 1762. when the Spanish governor of Buenos Ayres, hearing of a war between Portugal and Spain, took, after a month's siege, the Portuguese frontier fortress, called St. Sacrament; but by the treaty of peace it was restored.

GUIANA, belonging to the French and Dutch,

IS divided into Cayenne, which belongs to the French, and into Surinam which is a Dutch province.

Cayenne extends 240 miles along the coast of Guiana, and near 300 within land. It is bounded north, by Surinam; east by the Atlantic; south, by Amazonia; west, by Guiana. All the coast is very low, but within land there are fine hills, very proper for settlements. The commodities are similiar to those of the West India Islands.

Surinam is one of the richest and most valuable colonies belonging to the United Provinces. The chief trade of Surinam consists in sugar, cotton, coffee of an excellent kind, tobacco, flax, skins, and some valuable dying drugs. They trade with the United States, of whom they receive horses, live cattle, and provisions, and give in exchange large quantities of molasses. The Torporific eel is found in the rivers of Guina, which, when touched either by the hand, or by a rod of iron, gold, copper, or by a stick of some particular kinds of heavy wood, communicates a shock perfectly like that of electricity. There is an immense number and variety of snakes in this country, and which form one of its principal inconveniencies.

AMAZONIA.

Length 1200——Breath 960 miles.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by Terra Firma and Guiana; east, by the Atlantic ocean and Brazil; south, by La Plata; and west, by Peru.

Rivers.] From the discoveries of Orellana, and others made since his time, it appears that the Amazon is one of the largest rivers in the world. It runs a course from west to east of about 3000 miles, and receives near 200 other rivers, many of which have a course of 5 or 600 leagues and some of them not inferior to the Danube or the Nile. The breadth of this river at its mouth, where it discharges itself by several channels into the

the ocean, almoſt under the equator, is 150 miles; and 1500 miles from its mouth it is 30 or 40 fathoms deep. In the rainy ſeaſons it overflows its banks, and waters and fertilizes the adjacent country.

Climate, ſoil and Produce.] The fair ſeaſon here is about the time of the ſolſtices, and the wet or rainy ſeaſon, at the time of the equinoxes. The trees, fields and plants, are verdant all the year round. The ſoil is extremely rich, producing corn, grain, and fruits of all kinds, cedar trees, brazil wood, oak, ebony, logwood, iron wood, dying woods, cocoa, tobacco, ſugar canes, cotton, caſſavi root, potatoes, yams, ſarſaparilla, gums, raiſins, balſams of various kinds, pine apples, guavas, bonanas, &c The foreſts are ſtored with wild honey, deer, wild fowls and parrots. The rivers and lakes abound with fiſh of all ſorts; but are much infeſted with crocodiles, alligators, and water ſerpents.

Inhabitants.] The Indian nations inhabiting this wide country are very numerous; the banks of almoſt every river are inhabited by a different people, are governed by petty ſovereigns, called Caciques, who are diſtinguiſhed from their ſubjects by coronets of beautiful feathers. They are idolaters, and worſhip the images of their antient heroes. In their expeditions they carry their gods along with them.

Hiſtory.] The firſt diſcovery of this country was made by Franciſco Orellana, about the year 1580, who coming from Peru, ſailed down the river Amazon to the Atlantic Ocean. He obſerved on the banks of the river, companies of women in arms, and from thence called the country Amazonia, or the land of the Amazons; and gave the name of Amazon to the river, which formerly had been called Maragon. The Spaniards made ſeveral attempts to plant this country, but always met with ſo many difficulties and diſaſters as rendered all their deſigns abortive. The Portugueſe have ſome ſmall ſettlements on that part of the coaſt which lies betwixt Cape North and the mouth of the river Amazon; but this excepted, the natives are in the ſole poſſeſſion of all the country.

PATAGONIA,

IS a tract of country, 7 or 800 miles long, and 2 or 300 broad, at the ſouthern extremity of the American continent.

Climate, ſoil and Production.] This country is full of high mountains, which are covered with ſnow moſt of the year. The ſtorms of wind, rain, and ſnow here are terrible. The ſoil is very barren and has never been cultivated.

Inhabitants, Character &c] The natives live in thatched huts, and wear no cloaths, notwithſtanding the rigour of the climate. They live chiefly on fiſh and game, and what the earth ſpontaneouſly produces. They are of a tawney complexion, have black hair, and are a gigantic, brave, hardy, active race. Their arms are bows and arrows headed with flint. We know nothing of their government or religion.

Hiſtory.] Ferdinand Magellan, a Portegueſe in the ſervice of Spain, firſt diſcovered this country; at leaſt he was the firſt that ſailed through the

the ſtraits called by his name. Magellan paſſed theſe ſtraits in the year 1519. The continent is often called Terra Magellanica; and the largeſt of the neighbouring iſles, from a volcanno in it, is called Terra del Fuego, the moſt ſoutherly point of which is called Cape Horn.

Upon the firſt diſcovery of the ſtraits of Magellan, the Spaniards built forts and ſent ſome colonies thither; but moſt of the people periſhed with cold and hunger; ſince which time no ſettlements have been attempted here by any Europeans.

Weſt India Iſlands.

Theſe belong to Great Britian, Spain, France, Hoiland and Denmark.

TO GREAT BRITAIN belong, Bermudas, the Bahama iſlands, Jamaica, Barbadoes, Antigua, St. Chriſtopher's, Grenada, and the Grenadines, Nevis, Montſerrat, Barbuda, Dominica, St. Vincent, Anguilla,—to which we may add their northern iſlands, Newfoundland. Cape Breton, and St. John's. Jamaica, the largeſt of the weſt India iſlands, is computed to produce annually 70,000 tons of ſugar, upwards of 4,000,000 gallons of rum, beſides coffee, cocoa, indigo and pepper.

TO SPAIN belong the iſland of Cuba, one half of St. Domingo, Porto-Rico, Trinidad, Margaretta, Tortuga, Virgin iſlands, to which we may add the iſland of Juan Fernades, which lies 300 miles weſt of Chili in the Pacific Ocean, famous for having given riſe to the celebrated romance of Robinſon Cruſoe. The ſtory is this: One Alexander Selkirk, a Scotchman, was left aſhore in this ſolitary place, where he lived a number of years, till he was taken up by Capt. Rogers, 1709; he had almoſt forgotten his native language, ſeeming to ſpeak his words by halves. During his reſidence on the iſland, he had killed 500 goats by running them down, and he had marked as many more on the ear which he had let go. Upon his return to England he was adviſed to publiſh an account of his life and adventures in this little kingdom. For this purpoſe he gave his papers into the hands of one Defoe, to prepare them for publication. But the writer, by the help of theſe papers, transformed Alexander Selkirk into Robinſon Cruſoe.

To the FRENCH belong, the largeſt part of the iſland of St. Domingo, the iſlands of Martinique, Gaudaloupe, St. Lucia, Martia Galante, Tobago, St. Bartholomew, and Deſeada, and the North America iſlands St.

Pierre

Piere and Miquelon.—Theſe, with their African and Aſiatic poſſeſſions, and their ſettlements at Guiana and Cayenne, contain, according to Mr. Necker, 600,000 inhabitants.

To HOLLAND belong the iſlands of St. Euſtatia, Saba and Curracoa.

To DENMARK belong the iſlands of St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John. In theſe iſlands the Moravians have uſeful eſtabliſhments.

EUROPE*.

Miles.

Lenth 3000, Breadth 2500 } Between { 10° Weſt and 65° Eaſt Longitude from London. 36° and 72° North Latitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by the Frozen Ocean; eaſt, by Aſia; ſouth, by the Mediterranean Sea, which divides it from Africa; weſt, by the Atlantic Ocean, which ſeparates it from America. Containing 2,627,574 ſquare miles.

Divisions, Population &c.] The following table*, exhibits the latest and most accurate account of the grand divisions of Europe—of their extent, and real and comparative pupulation of any extant.

Grand divisions of Europe.	*Area of these states in square miles.*	*Population.*	*Number of inhabitants in each square mile.*	*Public Revenue in sterling money.*
Russia, (in Europe)	1,104,976	20,000,000	20	£ 5,800,000
Sweden,	209,392	3,000,000	14	1,300,000
Denmark,	182,400	2,200,000	12	1,000,000
Poland & Lithuania,	160,800	8,500,000	53	
Germany,	192,000	26,000,000	135	
The kingdom of Prussia alone,	22,144	1,500,000	67	3,600,000
France,	163,200	24,800,000	152	18,000,000
Holland,	10,000	2,360,000	236	4,000,000
Great Britain and Ireland,	100,928	11,000,000	109	14,500,000†
Switzerland,	15,296	1,500,000	117	
Gallizia and Lodomiria,	20,480	2,800,000	136	
Italy,	90,000	16,000,000	180	
Portugal,	27,376	2,000,000	65	1,800,000
Hungary & Transylvania,	92,112	5,170,000	56	
Spain,	148,448	10,000,000	68	5,000,000‡
Turkey,	182,562	7,000,000	38	5,000,000
Total	2,712,114	144,130,000	140	

* Zimmerman's 'Political Survey,'

† *Exclusive of Ireland.*

‡ *Of Old Spain alone.*

Milita

Military and marine ſtrength.] The land forces of the European ſtates, in the year 1783, were as follows:

France	300,000	Holland	37,000
Auſtria	282,000	Naples and Sicily	30,000
Ruſſia, (450,000 in all) in Europe	290,000	Electorate and Saxony	26,000
Pruſſia	224,000	Portugal	20,000
Turkey, (210,000 in all) in Europe, only	170,000	Electorate of Bavaria and the Palatinate	24,000
Spain (including militia)	60,000	Heſſe Caſſel	15,000
Denmark	72,000	Hanover	20,000
Great Britain (including militia)	58,000	Poland	15,000
Sweden	50,000	Venice	8,000
Sardinia	40,000	Wurtenburgh	6,000
		The Eccleſiaſtical ſtate	5,000
		Tuſcany	3,000

Including the parts of Europe omitted in this calculation, the armies of all the countries of Europe, amount to two millions of men; ſo that ſuppoſing one hundred and forty millions of inhabitants in Europe, no more than $\frac{1}{70}$ of the whole population are ſoldiers.

Number of Ships of the Line, Frigates, Cutters, Sloops, &c.

England	465	Ruſſia	65
France	266	Sardinia	32
Spain	130	Venice	30
Holland	95	Sicily	25
Sweden	85	Portugal	24
Denmark	60		
Turkey	50	Total	1325

Religion.] The religions of Europe are the Chriſtian, the Jewiſh and the Mahometan. The two firſt are ſpread all over Europe; the firſt and laſt are the only eſtabliſhed ones, the Jewiſh being merely tolerated. The chief diviſions of the Chriſtian, are the Greek, the Roman Catholic, and the Proteſtant. The Greek religion is eſtabliſhed only in Ruſſia, and tolerated in ſome parts of the Auſtrian dominions, in Poland, and chiefly in Turkey; ſubdiviſions of the Greek church, are the Arminian and Neſtorian church. Of the Roman Catholic church, Janſeniſm is a ſubdiviſion. The Proteſtant religion is ſubdivided into the Lutheran and Calviniſt, or reformed religion: Of the former the Epiſcopal church of England and Ireland is a branch: Of the latter the Preſbyterian church of Scotland. There are, beſides, many ſects adapted to the different degrees of theological knowledge, or to the different warmth of imagination of thoſe that adhere to them: The principal of theſe ſects are Arminians, Mennoniſts, Socinians, Unitarians, Moravian Brethren, Quakers and Methodiſts. The portion of the ſurface of the countries, in which the Proteſtant religion is eſtabliſhed, to thoſe in which the Roman Catholic religion prevails, is nearly as 3 to 4: The number of Roman Catholics, according to the beſt

best calculations, is about 90,000,000; the number of Protestants only 24,000,000, which is a proportion of nearly 4 to 1.

A concise view of the several countries of Europe, proceedingfrom south to north, follows. My authorities are Zimmermann and Guthrie.

PORTUGAL.

Miles.
Length 300 } Between { 37° and 42° North Latitude.
Breadth 100 } { 7° and 10° West Longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north and east, by Spain; south and west, by the Atlantic Ocean. Containing 19 towns, 527 villages, 3343 parishes.

Rivers.] Every brook in Portugal is called a river. Its rivers rise in Spain, and run west through Portugal, into the Atlantic. The most noted is the Tagus.

Capital.] LISBON, at the mouth of the Tagus, containing about 150,000 inhabitants. In 1755, it was laid level with the ground by a tremendous earthquake, which was succeeded by a general conflagration, in which catastrophe upwards of 10,000 people lost their lives.

Climate, Productions, and Commerce.] Portugal, situated in a genial climate, abounds in excellent natural productions, and is well watered. It possesses very rich piovinces in, and upon the coast of Asia, Africa, and America. It is, however, not proportionably powerful; its inhabitants are indigent, and the balance of trade is against it. It is even obliged to import the necessaries of life; chiefly corn, from other countries. Portugal produces wine, wool, oil, silk, honey, aniseed, sumac, a variety of fine fruits, some corn, flax, and cork. In 1785, the goods imported from Great-Britain and Ireland into Portugal, consisting of woollens, corn, fish, wood and hard ware, amounted to upwards of £.960,000 sterling. The English took in return, of the produce of Portugal and Brasil, to the amount of £.728,000 sterling. Only 15 millions of livres are supposed to circulate in a country which draws annually upwards of £.1,500,000 sterling, or 36 millions of livres, from the mines of Peru. Since the discovery of these mines, that is, within 60 years, Portugal has brought from Brasil about 2400 millions of livres, or £.100,000,000 sterling.

Governmet and Religion.] Since the *council* of the three estates, viz. the clergy, the nobility, and the cities, the members of which are nominated by the king, was substituted in the room of diets, or meetings of the states (which event took place the latter end of the last century); the government of the kingdom of Portugal has been absolutely monarchical. The proceedings of the courts of justice are slow and arbitrary, and the number of lawyers and law officers is exceedingly great.

The

The ſtate of religion in Portugal is the ſame as in Spain. The Portugueſe clergy conſiſt of one Patriarch, a dignity granted to the church of Portugal in the year 1716, of 3 archbiſhops, and 15 biſhops. The whole number of eccleſiaſtics is 200,000; 30,000 of which, and ſome ſay 60,000, are monks and nuns. The number of convents is 745. The number of clerical perſons to that of laymen is 1 to 11.

Hiſtory.] Portugal was anciently called Luſitania, and inhabited by tribes of wandering people, till it became ſubject to the Carthaginians and Phœnicians, who were diſpoſſeſſed by the Romans 250 years before Chriſt. In the fifth century it fell under the yoke of the Suevi and Vandals, who were driven out by the Goths of Spain, in the year 589; but when the Moors of Africa made themſelves maſters of the greateſt part of Spain, in the beginning of the eight century, they, penetrated into Luſitania: there they the eſtabliſhed governors, who made themſelves kings. After many fruitleſs attempts made by the kings of Leon on this part of Spain. Alonzo V. king of Caſtile and Leon, carried here his victorious arms, and to enſure his conqueſts, he gave it, in the year 1088, with the title of count, or earl, to Henry, grandſon of Robert, king of France, who had married Thereſa, Alonzo's natural daughter. Henry, was ſucceeded in his earldom by his ſon Alonzo, who, encouraged by his conqueſt over the Moors in the year 1139 aſſumed the title of king of Portugal. His ſucceſſors continued till 1580, when, upon the death of Henry ſurnamed the Cardinal, it was ſeized upon by Philip the II. king of Spain, after a war of two or three years; but in 1640, the people rebelled, ſhook off the Spaniſh yoke, and elected for their king the duke of Braganza, who took the name of John IV. in whoſe family it has ever ſince remained independent of Spain. Her preſent Majeſty's name in Mary Frances Iſſabella, who acceded to the throne in the year 1777.

SPAIN.

	Miles.		
Length	700	Between	36° and 44° North Latitude.
Breadth	500		3° and 10° Eaſt Longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED weſt, by Portugal and the Atlantic; north by the Bay of Biſcay and the Pyrenean mountains, which divide it from France; eaſt and ſouth, by the Mediterranean ſea, and the Straits of Gibraltar.

Spain is divided into 14 diſtricts, in which are 139 towns, and 21,083 villages and boroughs.

Rivers.] The Deuro, the Tagus, the Guadiana the Guadalquiver, all which fall into the Atlantic ocean, and the Ebro, the ancient Iberus, which falls into the Mediterranean.

Capital.] MADRID, ſituated on a branch of the river Tagus, containing 140,000 inhabitants. CADIZ, ſituated on the Atlantic; a little

to

to the northward of the Straits of Gibraltar, is the great emporium of Spain, and contains 80,000 inhabitants.

Wealth and commerce.] The advantages of Spain, as to climate, soil, natural productions, rivers, navigation, and foreign possessions, which are immensely rich, ought to raise this monarchy high above all other powers of Europe. Yet the reverse is the case: Spain is but thinly peopled—has but little commerce—few manufactures—and what commerce it has, is almost entirely in the hands of strangers, notwithstanding the impediments thrown in their way by the government

Spain produces excellent oranges, lemons, almonds, figs, grapes, pomegranates, dates, pistachios, capers, chesnuts,—tobacco, soda, saffron, honey, salt, saltpetre, wines of a rich and delicious flavour; cotton, rice, corn, oil, wool, silk, hemp, flax, &c. which with proper industry, might be exported to an amazing amount. And yet all the exports of Spain, most articles of which no other country can supply, are estimated at only £.3,333,333 sterling. Spain does not produce corn enough for its own consumption, and is under the necessity of importing large quantities.

Government.] Spain is an absolute monarchy. The provinces of Navarre, Biscay, and Arragon, have preserved some of their ancient privileges. The king's edicts must be registered in the court of Castile, before they acquire the force of laws. The crown is hereditary both in the male and female line. By a law made in 1715, female heirs cannot succeed till after the whole male line is extinct.

Religion.] The Roman Catholic religion, to the exclusion of all others, is the religion of the Spanish monarchy; and it is, in these countries, of the most bigotted, superstitious, and tyrannical character. All other denominations of Christians, as well as Jews, are exposed to all the severities of persecution. The power of the courts of Inquisition, established in Spain in 1578, has been diminished, in some respects, by the interference of the civil power. It is supposed that the clergy of this kingdom amount to 200,000, half of whom are monks and nuns, distributed in 3000 convents. The revenue of the archcishop of Tolledo is 300,000 ducats. There are in the kingdom of Spain 8 archbishops, 46 bishops; in America 6 archbishops and 28 bishops; in the Philippine isles, one archbishop and 3 bishops. All these dignities are in the gift of the king. Fifty-two inferior ecclesiastical dignities and offices are in the gift of the pope.

History.] The first inhabitants of Spain were the Celtæ, a people of Gaul; after them the Phœnicians possessed themselves of the most southern parts of the country, and may well be supposed to have been the first civilizers of this kindom, and the founders of the most ancient cities. After these followed the Grecians; then the Carthaginians, on whose departure, sixteen years before Christ, it became subject to the Romans, till the year 400, when the Goths, Vandals, Suevi, Alans, and Sillingi, on Constantine's withdrawing his forces from that kingdom to the east, invaded it, and divided it amongst themselves; but the Goths in a little time were sole masters of it under their king ALARICK I. who founded the Spanish monarchy. After a regular succession of monarchs, we come to the present king CHARLES IV. who ascended the throne in 1788.

FRANCE.

FRANCE.

Miles.
Length 600
Breadth 500
Between 45° and 51° North Latitude.
5° and 8° East Longitude.

Boundaries. BOUNDED north, by the English channel and the Netherlands; east, by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy; south, by the Mediterranean and Spain; west, by the Bay of Biscay. Containing 400 cities, 1500 smaller towns, 43,000 parishes, 100,000 villages.

Climate, Soil, Rivers, Commerce, &c.] France is situated in a very mild climate. Its soil in most parts is very fertile; it is bounded by high ridges of mountains, the lower branches of which cross the greater part of the kingdom; it consequently abounds with large rivers, such as the Rhone, the Loire, the Garonne, the Seine, &c. to the amount of 200, which are navigable; and it is contiguous to two oceans. These united advantages render this kingdom one of the richest countries in Europe, both with respect to natural productions and commerce. Wine is the staple commodity of France. One million six hundred thousand acres of ground are laid out in vineyards; and the neat profit from each acre is estimated at from 4 to 7 pounds sterling. France annually exports wines to the amount of 24 millions of livers. The fruits and other productions of France do not much differ from those of Spain, but are raised in much greater plenty. France has very important fisheries, both on her own, and on the American coast.

In 1773, there were in France 1500 silk mills, 21,000 looms for silk stuffs, 12,000 for ribands and lace, 20,000 for silk stockings, and the different silk manufactures employed 2,000,000 of people.

In point of commerce, France may be ranked next to England and Holland. The French have the greatest share of the Levant trade—they enjoy some valuable commercial privileges in Turkey—but their West-Indian possessions, which are admirably cultivated and governed, are the richest. Before the late American war, the balance of commerce in favour of France was estimated at 70,000,000 livres, and has not since been diminished.

Government.] This is a point which is not yet settled. When a permanent government shall be fixed, we shall give an accurate delineation of it in a future edition.

Religion.] The established religion of this kingdom is the Roman Catholic; but all others are now tolerated.

In France there are 18 archbishops, 111 bishops, 166,000 clergymen.

Learning.] The sciences have arisen to a very great height in this kingdom, and this nation can boast of having produced great master pieces

in almoſt every branch of ſcientific knowledge and elegant literature. There are 20 univerſities in France. The royal academies of ſciences, of the French language, and of inſcriptions and antiquities at Paris, are juſtly celebrated.

Hiſtory.] France was originally the country of the ancient Gauls, and was conquered by the Romans twenty-five years before Chriſt. The Goths, Vandals, Alans, and Suevi, and afterwards the Burgundi, divided it amongſt them from A. D. 400 to the 476, when the Franks, another ſet of German emigrants, who had ſettled between the Rhine and the Maine, completed the foundation of the preſent kingdom under Clovis. It was conquered, except Paris, by Edward III. of England, between 1341 and 1359. In 1320 an entire conqueſt was made by Henry V. who was appointed regent, during the life of Charles VI. acknowledged heir to the crown of France, and homage paid to him accordingly. The Engliſh crown loſt all its poſſeſſions in France during the reign of Henry VI. between 1434 and 1450.

The preſent king of this empire, is Lewis XVI. who was born Aug. 23, 1754; married Maria Antonietta of Auſtria, May 16, 1770; acceded to the throne upon the death of his grand-father Lewis XV. May 10, 1774; and was crowed at Rheims, June 12, 1775.

ITALY.

Miles.
Length 600, Breadth 400 } Between { 38° and 47° North Latitude. 7° and 19° Eaſt Longitude.

ITALY is a large peninſula, ſhaped like a boot and ſpur; and is bounded north, by the Alps, which divide it from France and Switzerland; eaſt, by the gulph of Venice, or Adriatic ſea; ſouth and weſt, by the Mediterranean ſea.

The whole of the Italian dominions comprehending Corſica and Sardinia, are divided as follows:

To the kingdom of Sardinia, belong. { Piedmont, Savoy, Monſerrat, Aleſſandrine, Oneglia, Sardinia iſland, } To their reſpective Princes. { Tuſcany, Maſſa, Parma, Modena, Piombino, Monaco. }

To the kingdom of Naples. { Naples, Sicily iſland, } Republics, { Lucca, St. Marino, Genoa.

To

To the Emperor, { Milan, Mantua, Mirandola.

To France, Corſica Iſland,

To the republic of Venice. { Venice, Iſtria, Dalmatia, Iſles of Dalmatia.

Popes dominions.

Iſlands in the Venetian dominions.

Air, Soil, and Productions.] Italy is the moſt celebrated country in Europe, having been formerly the ſeat of the Roman empire; and is at preſent of the Pope. The country is ſo fine and fruitful, that it is commonly called the garden of Europe. The air is temperate and wholeſome, excepting the territory of the church, where it is very indifferent. The ſoil is fertile, and produces wheat, rice, wine, oil, oranges and all ſorts of fruits, flowers, honey, ſilk; and in the kingdom of Naples are cotton and ſugar. The foreſts are full of all kinds of game. On the mountains are fine paſtures, which feed great numbers of cattle.

Inhabitants and Character.] Italy contains between 12 and 13 millions of inhabitants. The Italians excel in complaiſant, obliging behaviour to each other, and affability to foreigners; obſerving a medium between the levity of the French, and the ſtarch'd gravity of the Spaniards, and are by far the ſobereſt people that are to be found in the chriſtian world, though they abound in the choiceſt of wines. Nothing of luxury is to be ſeen at the tables of the great. They are generally men of wit, and have a genius for the arts and ſciences; nor do they want application. Muſic, poetry, painting, ſculpture and architecture are their favourite ſtudies, and there are no people on the face of the earth who have brought them to greater perfection. But they are amorous, and addicted to criminal indulgences, revengeful, and maſters of the art of diſſimulation. The women ſay they only deſire good features; they can make their complexion what they pleaſe.

Religion.] The Italians are zealous profeſſors of the doctrine of the church of Rome. The Jews are here tolerated in the public exerciſe of their religion. The natives, either in reverence to the Pope, or by being induſtriouſly kept in ignorance of the proteſtant doctrines, entertain monſtrous notions of all the diſſenters from the church of Rome. The inquiſition here is little more than a ſound. In Naples there are 20 archbiſhops, 107 biſhops: in Sicily 3 archbiſhops, and 8 biſhops. In the year 1782 there were in Naples alone, 45,525 prieſts, 24,694 monks, 20,793 nuns. In 1783, government reſolved to diſſolve 466 convents of nuns.

Chief City.] Rome, once the capital of the world, is now the chief city in Italy. It contained, in the year 1714, 143,000 inhabitants, and is ſituated upon the river Tyber. It was founded by Romulus 750 years before Chriſt, and was formerly three times as large as at preſent; and is now one of the largeſt and handſomeſt cities in Europe.

Mountains.] Mount Veſuvius, in the kingdom of Naples, and Ætna, in Sicily, are remarkable for their fiery eruptions, which frequently bury whole cities in their ruins.

Government.] The government of Venice is ariſtocratical, under a chief magiſtrate called a Doge, who is ſaid to be a king as to robes, a ſenator in the council-houſe, a priſoner within the city, and a private man out of it.

There are many different ſovereignties in Italy. It is divided into little republics, principalities, and dukedoms, which, in ſpiritual matters, are ſubject to the Pope, who, like the ghoſt of the deceaſed Roman empire, ſits crowned upon its grave.

Hiſtory.] The æra of the foundation of Rome begins April 20, 753 years before the birth of Chriſt. Authors generally aſſign the honour to Romulus its firſt king, who was but eighteen years old. He was a wiſe, courageous and politic prince.

St. Peter is placed at the head of the popes or biſhops of Rome, in the 33d year of the common æra. The preſent pope is Pius VI. erected February 15, 1775.

SWITERLAND.

Miles.

Length 260, Breadth 100, Between 6° and 11° East Longitude. 45° and 48° North Latitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by Germany; eaſt, by Tirol, Trent, and Lake Conſtance; ſouth, by Italy; weſt, by France.

Cities.] BERN, on the river Aar, is the moſt conſiderable city in Switzerland. BASIL, on the banks of the Rhine, contains 220 ſtreets, and by ſome is reckoned the capital of all Switzerland.

Rivers.] The principal rivers are the Rhine and Rhone, both of which riſe in the Alps.

Air, Soil and Productions.] This country is full of mountains; on the tops of ſome of them the ſnow remains the year round; the air of conſequence is keen, and the froſts ſevere. In the ſummer the inequality of the ſoil renders the ſame province very unequal in its ſeaſons. On one ſide of the mountains, called the Alps, the inhabitants are often reaping, while they are ſowing on the other. The vallies, however, are warm, fruitful, and well cultivated The water of Switzerland is excellent, deſcending from the mountains in beautiful cataracts, which have a moſt pleaſing and delightful effect. Its productions are, ſheep, cattle, wine, flax, wheat, barley, apples, peaches, cherries, cheſnuts and plumbs.

Population and Character.] For the number of inhabitants, ſee table of Europe.

The Swiſs are a brave, hardy, induſtrious people, remarkable for their fidelity, and their zealous attachment to the liberties of their country. A general ſimplicity of manners, an open, unaffected frankneſs, together with an invincible ſpirit of freedom, are the moſt diſtinguiſhing characteriſtics of the inhabitants of Switzerland. On the firſt entrance into this country, travellers

travellers cannot but obſerve the air of content and ſatisfaction which appears in the countenances of the inhabitants. A taſte for literature is prevalent amongſt them, from the higheſt to the loweſt rank. Theſe are the happy conſequences of a mild republican government.

Religion.] The eſtabliſhed religions are calviniſm and popery; though in ſome doctrinal points, they differ much from Calvin. Their ſentiments on religious toleration are much leſs liberal, than upon civil government.

Government.] Switzerland comprehends thirteen cantons, that is, ſo many different republics, all united in one confederacy, for their mutual preſervation. The government is partly ariſtocratical, and partly democratical. Every canton is abſolute in its own juriſdiction But whether the government be ariſtocratical, democratical or mixed, a general ſpirit of liberty pervades and actuates the whole conſtitutions. The real intereſts of the people appear to be attended to, and they enjoy a degree of happineſs, not to be expected in deſpotic governments.

Hiſtory.] The old inhabitants of this country were called Helvetii; they were defeated by Julius Cæſar; 57 years before Chriſt, and the territory remained ſubject to the Romans, till it was conquered by the Alcmans, German emigrants, A. D. 395; who were expelled by Clovis, king of France, in 496. It underwent another revolution in 888, being made part of the kingdom of Burgundy. In 1032, it was given by the laſt king of Burgundy, to Conrad II. emperor of Germany; from which time it was held as part of the empire, till the year 1307, when a very ſingular revolt delivered the Swiſs cantons from the German yoke. Griſler, governor of theſe provinces for the emperor Albert, having ordered one William Tell, an illuſtrious Swiſs patriot, under pain of death, to ſhoot at an apple, placed on the head of one of his children, he had the dexterity, though the diſtance was very conſiderable, to ſtrike it off without hitting the child. The tyrant perceiving that he had another arrow under his cloak, aſked him for what purpoſe; to which he boldly replied, 'To have ſhot you to the heart, if I'd had the misfortune to kill my ſon. The enraged governor ordered him to be hanged, but his fellow citizens, animated by his fortitude and patriotiſm, flew to arms, attacked and vanquiſhed Griſler, who was ſhot dead by Tell, and the independency of the ſeveral ſtates of this country, now called the Thirteen Cantons, under a republican form of government, took place immediately; which was made perpetual by a league among themſelves, in the year 1315; and confirmed by a treaty with the other powers of Europe 1649. Seven of theſe cantons are Roman catholics, and ſix proteſtants.

TURKEY in Europe.

	Miles.		
Length	1000	Between	17° and 40° East Longitude.
Breadth	900		36° and 49° North Latitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by Russia, Poland and Sclavonia; east, by Circassia, the Black Sea, the Propontis, Hellespont and Archipelago; south, by the Mediterranean Sea; west, by the same sea, and the Venetian and Austrian territories.

Soil, Air and Productions.] Nature has been lavish of her blessings upon the inhabitants of Turkey in those particulars. The soil, though unimproved by the indolence of the Turks, is luxuriant beyond description. The air is salubrious and friendly to the imagination, unless corrupted by the neighbouring countries, or through the uncleanliness of its inhabitants. The seasons are here regular and pleasant, and have been celebrated from the remotest times of antiquity. The Turks are invited to frequent bathings, by the purity and wholsomeness of the water, in every part of their dominions. Raw silk, cotton, oil, leather, tobacco, cake-soap, honey, wax, manna, and various fruits and drugs, are produced here in plenty.

Chief Cities.] CONSTANTINOPLE, the capital of this empire, stands on the west side of the Bosphorus, in the province of Romania, was rebuilt by the emperor Constantine in the fourth century, who transferred hither the seat of the Roman government; upon his death it obtained the name of Constantinople.

It is of a triangular shape, washed by the sea on two sides, and rising gradually from the shore, in the form of an amphitheatre. The view of it from the harbour is confessedly the finest in the world, exhibiting a multitude of magnificent mosques or temples, with their domes and minarets, and the seraglio intermixed with gardens and groves of evergreens. The expectations excited by this prospect, however, are disappointed on entering the city, where we find the streets narrow, the houses of the common people low and built of boards, and the palaces of the great men concealed by high walls before them. The city is surrounded by a wall about twelve miles in circumference, and the suburbs are very extensive. It contains 1,000,000 souls, of which 200,000 are Greeks, 40,000 Armenians, and 60,000 Jews.

Mountains.] In Thessaly, besides mount Olympus, which the ancients esteemed one of the highest mountains in the world, are those of Pelion and Ossa, mentioned so often by the poets; between these mountains, lie the celebrated plains of Tempe, represented by the ancients as equal to the Elysian Fields.

Religion.] The established religion in this empire is the Mahometan, of the sect of the Sunnites. All other religions are tolerated on paying a certain capitation. Among the Christians residing in Turkey, those of the orthodox Greeks are the most numerous, and they enjoy, among other privileges, that of being advanced to dignities and posts of trust

trast and profit. The Turkish clergy are numerous, being composed of all the learned in the empire, and are the only teachers of the law, and must be consulted in all important cases.

Government.] The Turkish emperor, who is usually called the Grand Seignior, has an unlimited power over the lives and fortunes of his subjects. But this he exercises chiefly towards his ministers and officers of state. Their laws in general are equitable, if duly executed, but justice is frequently bought and sold.

Character.] A Turk, or Persian, contemplates his emperor with fear and reverence, as a superior being, to whose pleasure it is his duty to submit, as much as unto the laws of nature and the will of Providence.

History] The *Ottoman* empire, or sovereignty of the Turkish empire, was founded at Constantinople by Othman I. upon the total destruction of the empire of the eastern Greeks in the year 1300, who was succeeded by a race of the most warlike princes that are recorded in history. The Turkish throne is hereditary in the family of Osman. The present Ottoman, or Turkish emperor, is ABDELHAMET, or ACHMET III. who had been in confinement forty-four years. He succeeded his brother Mustapha III. January 21, 1774.

HUNGARY, belonging to the House of Austria.

Miles.			Sq. M.
Length 300	Between	17° and 23° East Longitude.	36,060
Breadth 200		45° and 49° North Latitude.	

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by Poland; east, by Transylvania and Walachia; south, by Sclavonia; west, by Austria and Moravia. Divided into *Upper Hungary*, north of the Danube; and *Lower Hungary*, south of the Danube.

Population.] See table of Europe.

Air, soil and produce.] The air in the southern parts of Hungary is very unhealthy, owing to stagnated waters in lakes and marshes. The air in the northern parts is more serene and healthy. The soil in some parts is very fertile, and produces almost every kind of fruits. They have a fine breed of mouse coloured horses, much esteemed by military officers,

Religion.] The established religion in Hungary is the Roman Catholic, though the greater part of the inhabitants are Protestants or Greeks; and they now enjoy the full exercise of their religious liberties.

Government.] By the constitution of Hungary, the crown is still held to be elective. This point is not disputed. All that is insisted on is, that the heir of the house of Austria shall be elected as often as a vacancy happens.

The regalia of Hungary, consisting of the crown and sceptre of St. Stephen, the first king, are deposited in Presburg. These are carefully

ſecured by ſeven locks, the keys of which are kept by the ſame number of Hungarian noblemen. No prince is held by the populace as legally their ſovereign, till he be crowned with the diadem of king Stephen; and they have a notion that the fate of their nation depends upon this crown's remaining in their poſſeſſion; it has therefore been always removed in times of danger, to places of the greateſt ſafety.

Chief Towns.] Preſburgh in Upper Hungary, is the capital of the whole kingdom. It is well built on the Danube, and, like Vienna, has ſuburbs more magnificent than itſelf. In this city the ſtates of Hungary hold their aſſemblies, and in the cathedral church the ſovereign is crowned.

Hiſtory.] This kingdom is the ancient Pannonia. Julius Cæſar was the firſt Roman that attacked Hungary, and Tiberius ſubdued it. The Goths afterwards took it; and in the year 376, it became a prey to the Huns and Lombards. It was annexed to the empire of Germany under Charlemagne, but became an independent kingdom in 920. It was the ſeat of bloody wars between the Turks and Germans, from 1540 to 1739, when, by the treaty of Belgrade, it was ceded to the latter, and is now annexed to the German empire. Formerly it was an aſſemblage of different ſtates, and Stephen was the firſt who aſſumed the title of king, in the year 997. He was diſtinguiſhed with the appellation of SAINT, becauſe he firſt introduced chriſtianity into this country. The preſent ſovereign is Leopald II. who ſucceeded his brother, the late emperor, Joſeph II.

GERMANY.

Miles		
Length 600	Between	45° 4′ and 54° 40′ North Latitude.
Breadth 520		5° and 19° Eaſt Longitude.

Boundaries. BOUNDED north, by the German Ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic; eaſt, by Poland and Hungary; ſouth by Switzerland and the Alps, which divide it from Italy; weſt, by the dominions of France and the Low Countries, from which it is ſeparated by the Rhine, Moſelle, and the Meaſe.

Diviſions.] The German empire is divided into ten circles, viz.

Circles.	*Population.*	*Circles.*	*Population.*
Upper Saxony	3,700,000	Burgundy	1,880,000
Lower Saxony	2,100,000	Franconia	1,000,000
Weſtphalia	2,300,000	Swabia	1,800,000
Upper Rhine	1,000,000	Bavaria	1,600,000
Lower Rhine	1,100,000	Auſtria,	4,182,000

Beſides

Beſides theſe ten circles there belong alſo to the German empire,

	Population.
The kingdom of Bohemia, divided into 16 circles	2,266,000
The Marquiſate of Moravia, in 5 circles,	1,137,000
The Marquiſate of Luſatia, (belonging to the elector of Saxony)	400,000
Sileſia (belonging to the Roman empire)	1,800,000

Productions and Commerce.] From the advantageous ſituation and the great extent of Germany; from the various appearance of the ſoil, the number of its mountains, foreſts and large rivers, we ſhould be led to expect what we actually find, a great variety and plenty of uſeful productions. The northern, and chiefly the north-eaſtern parts, furniſh many ſorts of peltry, as ſkins of foxes, bears, wolves, ſquirrels, lynxes, wild-cats, boars, &c.——The ſouthern parts produce excellent wines and fruits; and the middle provinces great plenty of corn, cattle and minerals. Salt is found in Germany in greater abundance and purity than in moſt other countries.

If the Germans are inferior to the Engliſh in the manufactures of cloth, hardware, and in the articles of luxury, it muſt be accounted for from the political ſituation of their country: The great number of princes, the variety of the forms of government, the different intereſts and mutual jealouſies of the petty ſtates, operate as checks on the commerce and proſperity of the whole; and the difficulty of obtaining their concurrence in meaſures of general utility, is frequently the cauſe, why there are ſo few canals and good roads, to facilitate travelling and inland trade.

Government.] The German empire, which till the year 843, was connected with France, now forms a ſtate by itſelf, or may be connected as a combination of 300 ſovereignties, independent of each other, but compoſing one political body under an elective head, called the Emperor of Germany, or the Roman Emperor. All other ſovereigns allow him the firſt rank among the European monarchs. Eight princes of the empire, called Electors, have the right of electing the Emperor. The electors are divided into eccleſiaſtical and temporal.

Eccleſiaſtical.
- The Archbiſhop of Mentz,
- The Archbiſhop of Treves
- The Archbiſhop of Cologne.

Temporal.
- The King or Elector of Bohemia,
- The Elector of the Palatine of Bavaria,
- The Elector of Saxony,
- The Elector of Brandenburgh,
- The Elector of Brunſwick, (Hanover)

The emperor, upon his election, engages to protect the Roman Catholic religion and the Holy ſee. He is lord paramount of the Roman empire, of whom the princes are ſuppoſed to hold their dominions in fee—He has power to aſſemble the Diet, over which he he preſides in perſon or by his commiſſary, and of ratifying their reſolutions by his confirmation—He is ſupreme judge—has power to confer titles of nobility—to eſtabliſh poſt offices throughout the empire, to give charters to the univerſities,

versities, and to confer academical degrees. The Diet, which is composed of the emperor, and of the immediate states of the empire, have power to levy taxes, give laws, make war, and conclude treaties of peace, by which the whole empire is bound. The states of the empire which are differently constituted and governed, considered in their separate capacity, enjoy sovereign power in their respective dominions, limited only by the above mentioned laws.

Religion.] Since the year 1555, the Roman Catholic, the Lutheran, and the Calviniſt, generally called the Reformed Religion, have been the eſtabliſhed religions of Germany. The firſt prevails in the ſouth of Germany, the Lutheran in the north, and the reformed near the Rhine.

Capital.] VIENNA, on the Danube is the capital of Auſtria, and of the whole German empire; and is the reſidence of the Emperor.

Improvements.] The Germans can boaſt of a greater number of uſeful diſcoveries and inventions of arts and ſciences than any other European nation. They have the honor of inventing the art of printing, about the year 1450.

Hiſtory, &c.] Charlemagne, or Charles the Great, king of France, was the founder of the German empire, in 800. Leopald II. the preſent emperor, was elected upon the death of his brother Joſeph II.

The German empire, when conſidered as one ſingle power or ſtate, with the emperor at his head, is of no great political conſequence in Europe; becauſe, from the inequality, and weak connection of its parts, and the different nature of their government, from the inſignificancy of its ill compoſed army, and above all from the different views and intereſts of its maſters, it is next to impoſſible its force ſhould be united, compact and uniform.

THE NETHERLANDS, OR FLANDERS.

	Miles		
Length	200	Between	49° and 52° North Latitude
Breadth	600		2° and 7° East Longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north by Holland; eaſt, by Germany; ſouth and weſt, by France and the Engliſh Sea.

Diviſions.] This country is divided into ten provinces, named,

Provinces.		*Chief Towns.*
Brabant, belonging to the Dutch and Auſtrians,		Breda, Bruſſels.
Antwerp, *Malines*,	ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.	Antwerp.
Limburg,		

Provinces	*Chief Towns.*
Limburgh, belonging to the Dutch and Auſtrians,	Limburg.
Luxemburg, Auſtrian and French,	Luxemburg.
Namur, middle parts belonging to Auſtria,	Namur
Hainault, Auſtrian and French,	Mons.
Cambreſis, ſubject to France,	Cambray,
Artois, ſubject to France,	Arras
Flanders, belonging to the Dutch, Auſtrians and French	Ghent, Oſtend.

Inhabitants and religion.] The Netherlands are inhabited by about 1,500,000 ſouls. The Roman Catholic is the eſtabliſhed religion; but Proteſtants and Jews are not moleſted.

Manufactures.] Their principal manufactures are, fine lawns, cambricks, lace and tapeſtry, with which they carry on a very advantageous traffic, eſpecially with England, from whence it is computed, they receive a balance of half a million annually in time of peace.

Chief towns.[BRUSSELS is the chief town of Brabant and the capital of Flanders. Here the beſt camblets are made, and moſt of the fine laces which are worn in every part of the world.

Antwerp, once the emporium of the European continent, is now reduced to be a tapeſtry and thread-lace ſhop. One of the firſt exploits of the Dutch, ſoon after they ſhook off the Spaniſh yoke, was to ruin at once the commerce of Antwerp, by ſinking veſſels loaded with ſtone in the mouth of the river Scheldt: thus ſhutting up the entrance of that river to ſhips of burden. This was the more cruel, as the people of Antwerp had been their friends and fellow-ſufferers in the cauſe of liberty.

Hiſtory.] Flanders, originally the country of the ancient Belgæ, was conquered by Julius Cæſar forty-ſeven years before Chriſt; paſſed into the hands of France A. D. 412; and was governed by its earls, ſubject to that crown from 864 to 1360. By marriage it then came into the houſe of Auſtria; but was yielded to Spain in 1556.—Shook off the Spaniſh yoke 1572, and in the year 1725, by the treaty of Vienna, was annexed to the German empire:

HOLLAND, OR THE UNITED PROVINCES.

	Miles.			Sq. Mil.
Length	180	Between.	51° 20′ and 53° 30′ N. Lat	10,000
Breadth	145		2° 7° Eaſt Longitud.	

Boundaries.] BOUNDED eaſt, by Germany; ſouth, by the Auſtrian and French Netherlands; weſt and north by the German Ocean. Containing 113 towns, 1400 villages.

Divided

Divided into seven provinces.

Provinces.	*Chief Towns.*	*Inhab.*	*Provinces.*	*Chief Towns.*
Gelder,	Nimeguen,	12,000	Friesland.	Leuwarden.
Holland,	Amsterdam,	212,000	Overyssel,	Deventer.
Utrecht,	Utrecht,	30,000	Groenigen	Groenigen.
Zeeland,	Middleburgh,	24,000.		

Country of Drenthe, under the protection of the United Provinces.
Lands of the Generality, commonly called Dutch Brabant.

Wealth and Commerce.] The seven United Provinces afford a striking proof, that unwearied and persevering industry is capable of conquering every disadvantage of climate and situation. The air and water are bad; the soil naturally produces scarcely any thing but turf; and the possession of this soil, poor as it is, is disputed by the ocean, which, rising considerably above the level of the land, can only be prevented by strong and expensive dykes, from overflowing a spot which seems to be stolen from its natural domains. Notwithstanding these difficulties, which might seem insurmountable to a less industrious people, the persevering labours of the patient Dutchmen have rendered this small, and seemingly insignificant territory, one of the richest spots in Europe, both with respect to population and property. In other countries which are possessed of a variety of natural productions, we are not surprised to find manufactures employed in multiplying the riches which the bounty of the soil bestows. But to see, in a country like Holland, large woollen manufactures, where there are scarely any flocks; numberless artists employed in metals, where there is no mine; thousands of saw-mills, where there is scarcely any forest; an immense quantity of corn exported from a country where there is not agriculture enough to support one half of its inhabitants, must strike every observer with admiration. Among the most valuable productions of this country may be reckoned their excellent cattle. They export large quantities of madder, a vegetable much used in dying. Their fisheries yield a clear profit of many millions of florins. The trade of Holland extends to almost every part of the world, to the exclusion, in some branches, of all their European competitors.

Capital.] AMSTERDAM, which is built on piles of wood, and is one of the most commercial cities in the world. It has more than one half the trade of Holland; and, in this celebrated centre of an immense commerce, a bank is established of that species, called a Giro bank, of very great wealth and greater credit.

Government.] Since the great confederation of Utrecht, made in the year 1579, the Seven United Provinces may be looked on as one political body, united for the preservation of the whole, of which each single province is governed by its own laws, and exercises most of the rights of a sovereign state. In consequence of the union, the Seven Provinces guarantee each others rights, they make war and peace, they levy taxes, &c. in their joint capacity; but as to internal government, each province is independent of the other provinces, and of the supreme power of the republic. The provinces rank in the order they are mentioned. They send deputies, chosen out of the provincial states, to the general assembly, called

called the *States General*, which is inveſted with the ſupreme legiſlative power of the confederation. Each province may ſend as many members as it pleaſes, but it has only one voice in the aſſembly of the ſtates. According to the lateſt regulations, that aſſembly is compoſed of 58 deputies. At the head of this republican government, is the Prince Stadtholder or Governor, who exerciſes a very conſiderable part of the executive power of the ſtate.

Religion.] The Calvaniſt or Reformed Religion is eſtabliſhed in Holland: but others are tolerated.

None but Calviniſts can hold any employment of truſt or profit. The church is governed by preſbyteries and ſynods. Of the latter there are nine for ſingle provinces, and one national ſynod, ſubject, however, to the controul of the States General. The French and Walloon Calviniſts have ſynods of their own. In the ſeven provinces are 1579 miniſters of the eſtabliſhed church, 20 of the Walloon church, 800 Roman Chatholic, 53 Lutheran, 43 Arminian, and 312 Baptiſt miniſters. In the Eaſt Indies there are 46, and in the Weſt Indies 9 miniſters of the eſtabliſhed church.

Hiſtory.] Theſe provinces were originally an aſſemblage of ſeveral lordſhips, dependant upon the kings of Spain; from whoſe yoke they withdrew themſelves during the reign of Philip II. in the year 1579, under the conduct of the Prince of Orange, and formed the republic now called the Seven United provinces, of Holland, that being the moſt remarkable province. The office of ſtadtholder, or captain-general of the United Provinces, was made hereditary in the Prince of Orange's family, not excepting females, 1747.

POLAND AND LITHUANIA.

Miles.
Length 700 } Between { 16° and 34° Eaſt Longitude.
Breadth 680 } { 46° and 57° North Latitude.

Boundaries. BEFORE the extraordinary partition of this country by the king of Pruſſia, aided by the emperor and empreſs queen, and the empreſs of Ruſſia, which event happened ſince the year 1771, the kingdom of Poland, with the dutchy of Lithuania annexed, was bounded north, by Livonia, Muſcovy, and the Baltic; eaſt, by Muſcovy, ſouth, by Hungary, Turkey, and Little Tartary; weſt, by Germany. Containing 230 towns.

In Poland, are villages 2,377, convents of nuns 86, noblemen's eſtates 22,032, abbeys 37, convents of monks 579, houſes in general 1,674,328, peaſants 1,242,000, Jews 500,000.

Diviſions.] The kingdom of Poland contains 155 towns, and is divided into, 1. Great Poland, which is ſubdivided into 12 diſtricts, called Woidwodſhips. 2. Little Poland three woidwodſhips. 3. Polachia, three

three counties, 4. Chelm, remaining part of Red Ruſſia. 5. Podolia and Bratzaw. 6. Kow. 7. Volhynia. 8. The great dutchy of Lithuania, which includes White Ruſſia, Black Ruſſia, Poleſia, and the dutchy of Szamaite.

Wealth and Commerce.] Poland is one of the weakeſt ſtates in Europe, owing to the oppreſſion of the trades people in the towns, and the ſlavery of the peaſantry. If the ſkill of the natives in agriculture, bore any proportion to the fertility of the ſoil, Poland might be one of the richeſt countries in the world; for though a large part of it lies uncultivated, it exports no inconſiderable quantity of corn. Want of induſtry and of freedom, are the chief reaſons that the balance of trade is ſo much againſt Poland. The exports are corn, hemp, flax, horſes, cattle, (about 100,000 oxen every year) peltry, timber, metals, manna, wax, honey. &c. the value of them in the year 1777, amounted to nearly 30 millions of dollars. The imports, conſiſting chiefly in wine, cloth, ſilk. hardware, gold, ſilver, Eaſt and Weſt India goods, were ſuppoſed to amount to no leſs than 47 millions of dollars.

Government.] Since the late revolution, the government of Poland is ariſtocratical. Its nominal head is an elective king, ſo limited, that in public acts he is often called only the firſt order of the republic. On being elected he is obliged immediately to ſign the *Pacta Conventa* of Poland. The ſovereign power is veſted in the hands of the three orders of the ſtate, the king, the ſenate and the nobility.

Religion.] The eſtabliſhed religion is the Roman Catholic, Proteſtants, to whom the name of diſſidents is now confined, are tolerated. The power of the pope and of the prieſts is very great.

Capital.] WARSAW, ſituated on the river Viſtula, in the center of Poland, containing 50,000 inhabitants.

Hiſtory.] Poland was anciently the country of the Vandals, who emigrated from it to invade the Roman empire. It was erected into a dutchy, of which Lechus was the firſt duke, A. D. 694. In his time the uſe of gold and ſilver was unknown to his ſubjects, their commerce being carried on only by exchange of goods. It became a kingdom in the year 1000; Otho III. emperor of Germany, conferring the title of king on Boleſlaus I. Red Ruſſia was added to this kingdom by Boleſlaus II. who married the heireſs of that country, A. D. 1059. Diſmembered by the emperor of Germany, the empreſs of Ruſſia, and the king of Pruſſia, who, by a partition treaty, ſeized the moſt valuable territories, 1772.

PRUSSIA.

THE countries belonging to this monarchy, are ſcattered, and without any natural connection. The kingdom of Pruſſia is bounded north, by part of Samogitia; ſouth, by Poland Proper and Maſovia; eaſt, by part of Lithuania; weſt, by Poliſh Pruſſia and the Baltic; 160 miles

miles in length, and 112 in breath. Its capital is KONINGSBERG, containing 54,000 inhabitants. Prussia extends to 55° north latitude, and is divided into.

	Population.	*Capital.*	*Towns.*
The countries which are independent of the German Empire.	6,000,000	BERLIN.	570.
The countries that are dependent.	6,400,000	145,136 inhabitants.	

Wealth and commerce.] The different provinces of the Prussian monarchy are by no means equal to one another, with respect to fertility and the articles of their produce. The kingdom of Prussia, being the most northren part of the monarchy, is rich in corn, timber, manna grass, flax, and peltry of all sorts, and exports these articles. Amber is exported annually, to the the value of 20,000 dollars. Prussia wants salt, and has no metals but iron. The profits of its fisheries are considerable. Other parts of the monarchy produce various metalic ore, minerals, and precious stones. The sum accruing to the king from the mines, amounts to 800,000 dollars, and the profits of private proprietors, to 500,000 dollars. Five thousand hands are employed in the silk manufactures. Prussia annually exports linen to the value of 6 millions of dollars. Their manufactures of iron, cloath, silk, linen, leather, cotton, porcelaine, hard ware, glass, paper, and their other principle manufactures, employ upwards of 165,000 hands, and the produce of their industry is estimated at upwards of 30 millions of dollars.

Government and religion.] The Prussian monarch resembles a very complicated machine, which, by its ingenious and admirable construction, produces the greatest effects with the greatest ease, but in which the yeilding of a wheel, or the relaxation of a spring will stop the motion of the whole. The united effects of flourishing finances, of prudent œconomy, of accuracy and dispatch in every branch of administration, and of a formidable military strength, have given such consequence to the Prussian monarchy, that the tranquillity and security, not only of Germany, but of all Europe, depend in a great measure on the politics of its cabinet. The administration of justice is likewise admirably simplified and executed with unparalleled quickness.

Under the reign of the late king, Frederick the great, all professions of faith lived peaceably together, because the established religion, which is the reformed, had no power to oppress those of a different persuasion. Roman Catholicks and Jews are very numerous in the Prussian dominions; they enjoy the most perfect freedom in the exercise of their religion.

History.] Prussia was anciently inhabited by an idolatrous and cruel people. The barbarity and ravages they were continually making upon their neighbours, obliged Conrad, duke of Masovia, about the middle of the thirteenth century, to call to his assistance the knights of the Teutonic order, who were just returned from the holy land. These knights chose a grand master, attacked those people with success, and after a bloody war of fifty years, reduced them to obedience, and obliged them to embrace christianity. They maintained their conquest till 1525, when Albert, Margrave of Brandenburgh, their last grand master having made himself

himſelf maſter of all Pruſſia, ceded the weſtern part to the king of Poland; and was acknowledged duke of the eaſtern part, but to be held as a fief of that kingdom. The elector Frederick-William, ſurnamed the Great; by a treaty with Poland in 1656, obtained a confirmation of this part of Pruſſia to him and his heirs, free from vaſſalage, and in 1663 he was declared independent and ſovereign duke. With theſe titles, and as grand maſter of the Teutonics, they continued till 1701; when Frederick, ſon of Frederick-William the Great, and grandfather of the late king, raiſed the dutchy of Pruſſia to a kingdom, and on January 18, 1701, in a ſolemn aſſembly of the ſtates of the empire, placed the crown with his own hands upon his head; ſoon after which he was acknowledged as king of Pruſſia by all the European powers. Frederick III. died Auguſt 17, 1786, and was ſucceeded by his nephew, Frederick-William, who was born 1744.

RUSSIA.

		Miles.	
Length Breadth	Between	44° and 40′ and 72° North Lat. 23° and 62° Eaſt Longitude.	4.880,000

THIS is the largeſt empire in the world, extending from the Baltic and Sweden on the weſt; to Kamtſchatka, and the eaſtern ocean; and on the north, from the frozen ocean to the 44th degree of latitude.

Diviſions] Ruſſia is at preſent divided into 42 governments, which are comprehended again under 19 general governments, viz.

	Government.	*Inhab.*	*Capital.*
European part of Ruſſia,	30	20 millions,	Peterſburg.
Aſiatic Ruſſia,	12	4 ditto.	Caſan

The ſuperiority of the European part over the vaſt but uncultivated provinces of Aſia, is ſtriking. The provinces acquired by the diviſion of Poland, are highly valuable to Ruſſia, to which the acquiſition of Crimea is by no means comparable in value.

This immenſe empire comprehends upwards of 50 different nations, and the number of languages is ſuppoſed not to be leſs than the number of nations.

Wealth and commerce.] In ſo vaſt a tract of country as the empire of Ruſſia, ſpreading under many degrees of latitude, watered by more than eight rivers, which run through the ſpace of 2000 miles, and croſſed by an extenſive chain of mountains, we may expect to find an infinite number of natural productions, though we muſt make ſome allowances for the great deſerts of Siberia, and the many parts not yet thoroughly inveſtigated by natural hiſtorians. The ſpecies of plants peculiar to this part of the globe, which have already been diſcovered, amount to many thouſands. The ſoil contains almoſt all minerals, tin, platina and ſome ſemi-

metals

metals excepted. Ruſſia abounds with animals of almoſt all the various kinds, and has many that have never been deſcribed. It has the greateſt variety of the fineſt furs. In 1781, there were exported from Peterſburg alone 428,877 ſkins of hares, 36,904 of grey ſquirrels, 1,354 of bears, 2,018 of ermine, 5,639 of foxes, 300 of wild cats, beſides thoſe of wolves and of the *ſuſlic* (a beautiful animal of the rat kind) excluſive of the exportation of the ſame articles from Archangel, Riga, and the Caſpian Sea. In one year there were exported from Archangel, 783,000 pud of tallow (a pud is equal to 40 lb.) 8,602 pud of candles, and 102 pud of butter. In 1781 from Peterſburgh, 148,099 pud of red leather, 10,885 pud of leather for ſoles, 530,646 pud of candles, 50,000 pud of ſoap, 27,416 pud of ox bones, 990 calve ſkins. The fiſheries belonding to Ruſſia are very productive. The foreſts of fir-trees are immenſely valuable. Oaks and beeches do not grow to a uſeful ſize beyond the 60th degree of north latitude. They export timber, pitch, tar and pot-aſh to a vaſt amount. Rye, wheat, tobacco, hemp, flax, ſail-cloth, linſeed oil, flax-ſeed, iron, ſilver, copper, jaſper, ſalt, marble, granite, &c. are among the productions of Ruſſia. The whole of the exports of Ruſſia amounted in 1783 to near 13 millions of rubles; the imports did not much exceed the ſum of 12 millions. The imports conſiſt chiefly of wine, ſpices, fruits, fine cloth, and other manufactured commodities and articles of luxury. There are at preſent no more than 484 manufacturers in the whole empire.

Government.] The emperor or autocrator of Ruſſia (the preſent empreſs ſtyles herſelf autocratrix) is abſolute. He muſt be of the Greek church by the ancient cuſtom of the empire. The only written fundamental law exiſting is that of Peter the Firſt, by which the right of ſucceſſion to the throne depends entirely on the choice of the reigning monarch, who has unlimited authority over the lives and properties of all his ſubjects. The management of public affairs is entruſted to ſeveral departments. At the head of all thoſe concerned in the regulation of internal affairs (the eccleſiaſtical ſynod excepted) is the ſenate, under the preſidency of a chancellor and vice-chancellor. The ſovereign nominates the members of this ſupreme court, which is divided into ſix chambers, four at Peterſburg and two at Moſcow. The provinces are ruled by governors appointed by the ſovereign.

Religion.] The religion eſtabliſhed in the Ruſſian empire is the Greek. The moſt eſſential point in which their profeſſion of faith differs from that of the Latin church, is the doctrine, that the Holy Ghoſt proceeds from the Father only. Their worſhip is as much overloaded with ceremonies as the Roman Catholic. Saints are held in veneration, and painted images, of them, but no ſtatues, are ſuffered in the churches. The church has been governed, ſince the time of Peter the Great, by a national council called the Holy Synod. Marriage is forbid to the archbiſhops and biſhops, but is allowed to the inferior clergy. There are 479 convents for men, 74 for women, in which are 70,000 perſons. Above 900,000 peaſants belong to the eſtates in poſſeſſion of the clergy.

Hiſtory.] The earlieſt authentic account we have of Ruſſia is A. D. 862, when Rurick was grand duke of Novogorod in this country. In the year 981, Wolidimer was the firſt Chriſtian king. The Poles conquered

it about 1058, but it is uncertain how long they kept it. Andrey I. began his reign 1158, and laid the foundation of Moſcow. About 1200 of the Mungls Tartars conquered it, and held it in ſubjection to them till 1540, when John Baſilowitz reſtored it to independency. About the middle of the ſixteenth century, the Ruſſians diſcovered and conquered Siberia. It became an empire 1721, when Peter I. aſſumed the title of emperor of all the Ruſſias, which was admitted by the powers of Europe to be obſerved in future negociations with the court of Peterſburg.

The reign of Elizabeth, in the courſe of the preſent century, is remarkable, on account of her aboliſhing the uſe of torture, and governing her ſubjects for twenty years without inflicting a ſingle capital puniſhment.

The preſent empreſs is actually employed in founding a number of ſchools, for the education of the lower claſſes of her ſubjects, throughout the beſt inhabited parts of the empire; an inſtitution of the moſt beneficial tendency, which, if rightly executed, will entitle the great Catharine, more than any of her predeceſſors, to the gratitude of the Ruſſian nation.

SWEDEN.

Miles.
Length 1300, Breadth 600. Between 50° and 70° North Latitude. 10° and 40° Eaſt Longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by the Frozen Ocean; eaſt by Ruſſia; ſouth, by Denmark and the Baltic; weſt, by Norway. The whole kingdom of Sweden contains 104, towns, 80,250 villages, and 1,200 eſtates of the nobility.

	Diviſions	*Square miles*	*Population.*	*Cap. Towns.*
1	Sweden Proper,	64,000	2,100,000	Stockholm.
2	Gothland,			80,0000 inhab.
3	Nordland,	95,472	150,000	Lund.
4	Lapland,			
5	Finland,	48,780	624,000	Abo.
6	Swediſh Pomerania,	1,440	100,550	Bergen.

7 In the Weſt-Indies, Sweden obtained from France, in the year 1785, the iſland of Barthelemi.

Climate, exports and imports.] Sweden has an inhoſpitable climate, and the greater part of the ſoil is barren, upwards of 110,000 ſquare miles lie uncultivated. Yet the induſtry of the inhabitants in arts and agriculture, has raiſed it to the rank of a ſecondary European power. Sweden imports 300,000 tons of corn, and 4,535 hogſheads of ſpirituous liquors, beſides hemp, flax, ſalt, wine, beef, ſilk, paper, leather, and Eaſt and Weſt-India goods. The exports of Sweden conſiſt chiefly of wood, pitch, tar, fiſh, furs, copper, iron, ſome gold and ſilver, and other minerals, to the amount, in the year 1768 of upwards of 13 millions

millions of dollars; their imports in the ſame year amounted to little more than 10 millions of dollars. The Swedes trade to all parts of Europe, to the Levante, the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies, to Africa and China.

Government.] Since the memorable revolution in 1772. Sweden may be called a monarchy. The ſenate ſtill claim ſome ſhare in the adminiſtration, but its members are choſen by the king. The king has the abſolute diſpoſal of the army, and has the power of calling and of diſſolving the aſſembly of the ſtates; but he cannot impoſe any new tax, without conſulting the diet. The ſenate is the higheſt court or council in the kingdom, and is compoſed of 17 ſenators, or ſupreme counſellors. The provinces are under governors, called provincial captains.

Religion.] The religion eſtabliſhed in Sweden is the Lutheran, which the ſovereign muſt profeſs, and is engaged to maintain in the kingdom. Calviniſts, Roman Catholics and Jews are tolerated. The ſuperior clergy of Sweden have preſerved the dignities of the Roman Catholic church; it is compoſed of the archbiſhop of Upſal, of 14 biſhops, and of 192 preſidents. The juriſdiction of eccleſiaſtical matters is in the hands of 19 conſiſtories. The number of the inferior clergy, comprehending the miniſters of pariſhes, &c. amounts only to 1387.

Hiſtory.] We have no account of this country till the reign of Bornio III. A. D. 714. Margaret queen of Denmark and Norway, was called to the throne of Sweden, on the forced reſignation of Albert, their king, A. D. 1387. It remained united to the Daniſh crown till 1523, when the famous Guſtavus Vaſa expelled the Danes, and ever ſince it has remained independent; but was made an abſolute monarchy by the preſent king in 1772.

Poſſeſſions of DENMARK in Europe.

ALL the Daniſh provinces contain 182,400 ſquare miles, and, including the colonies, 2,500,000 inhabitants.

Diviſions.	*Square miles.*	*Population.*	*Chief Towns.*	*Inhab.*
1 Denmark Proper, on the Baltic Sea,	13,000	1,125,000	COPENHAGEN,	87,000
2 Dutchy of Holſtein in Germany,	2,800	310,000	Glukſtadt,	2,483
3 Norway, which has the Atlantic weſt,	112,000	723,141	Bergen,	18,000
4 Faroe iſlands,	———	5,000	———	———
5 Iceland,	46,400	40,201	Skalhol,	———

The whole of Denmark contains 68 towns, 22 boroughs, 15 earldoms, 18 baronies, 932 eſtates of the inferior nobility, 7000 villages.

Norway contains 18 towns, two earldoms, and 27 eſtates of the other nobility.

The Danes have ſettlements at Coromandel in Aſia, on the coaſt of Guinea and other places in Africa, and in Greenland in America. Greenland is divided into Eaſt and Weſt Greenland, a very extenſive country, but thinly inhabited. *Crantz* reckons only 957 ſtated, and 7000 wandering inhabitants in Weſt Greenland. The Danes are the only nation who have ſettlements in Weſt Greenland; where, under their protection, the Moravian brethern have miſſionaries, and very uſeful eſtabliſhments.

Wealth and Commerce.] If the cold and barren kingdom of Norway did not require large ſupplies of corn from Denmark, the latter could export a conſiderable quantity of it. Sleſwick, Jutland, Seeland, and Leland, are very rich corn countries, and abound in black catttle. The chief produce of Norway is wood, timber, and a great variety of peltry. The mines of Norway are very valuable, as well as its fiſheries. Only one fourteenth part of it is fit for agriculture. The balance of trade is in favour of Norway, and againſt Denmark. The whole of the exports of Denmark and Holſtein amounted, in 1768, to 1,382,681 rix-dollars; the imports to 1,976,800. The exports of Norway, to 1,711,369, and the imports to 1,238,284 dollars. Manufactures do not thrive in Denmark.

Religion.] The ſame as in Sweden.

Government.] Denmark is an hereditary kingdom, and governed in an abſolute manner; but the Daniſh kings are legal ſovereigns, and perhaps the only legal ſovereigns in the world; for the ſenators, nobility clergy, and commons diveſted themſelves of their right as well as power, in the year 1661, and made a formal ſurrender of their liberties to the then king Frederick III.

Hiſtory.] Denmark, the ancient kingdom of the Goths, was little-known till the year 714, when Gormo was king. Chriſtian VII. is the preſent ſovereign; he viſited England in 1768. His queen, the youngeſt ſiſter of George III. king of Great-Britain, was ſuddenly ſeized, confined in a caſtle as a ſtate priſoner, and afterwards baniſhed the kingdom. The Counts Struenſee and Brandt (the firſt prime miniſter and the queen's phyſician) were ſeized at the ſame time, January 1772, and beheaded the ſame year.

Bartholinus, celebrated for his knowledge of anatomy, and Tycho Brahe, the famous aſtronomer, were natives of this country.

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

Lies between 49° and 58° 50′ North Latitude, and 2° East and 6° 20′ West Longitude.

Divisions.	*Sq. Mil.*	*Population.*	*Capital.*	*Inhab.*
ENGLAND and Wales	54,112	7,000,000	LONDON,	800,000
Scotland, - -	25,600	1,300,000	Edinburgh,	80,000
Ireland, - -	21,216	2,161,514	Dublin,	160,000

	Counties.		*Counties.*
England is divided into	40	Scotland	31 and 2 stewardships.
Wales - -	12	Ireland	32 in 4 provinces.

The English possess the fortress of Gibraltar, and valuable settlements in Asia, Africa, and America.

Wealth and Commerce.] The two divisions of Great-Britain England and Scotland, differ widely with respect to their natural fertility, and to the wealth of their inhabitants. South Britain, or England, abounds with all the useful productions of those countries in Europe, which are in parrallel latitudes, wine, silk, and some wild animals excepted. Agriculture, gardening, the cultivation of all those plants which are most useful for feeding cattle, and breeding horses and sheep, are carried on in England to an astonishing height. Of about 42,000,000 acres, which England contains only 8,500,000 produce corn; the rest is either covered with wood, or laid out in meadows, gardens, parks, &c. and a considerable part is still waste land. Yet out of crops obtained from the fifth part of the lands, there have been exported, during the space of five years, from 1745 to 1750, quantities of corn to the value of £.7,600,000 sterling. The nett produce of the English corn-land is estimated at £.9,000,000 sterling. The rents of pasture-ground, meadows, &c. at £.7,000,000. The number of people engaged in, and maintained by farming, is supposed to be 2,800,000. England abounds in excellent cattle and sheep. In the beginning of the present century, there were supposed to be 12 millions of sheep, and their number has since been increasing. In the years 1769, 1770 and 1771, the value of the woollens exported from England, including those of Yorkshire, amounted to £13,500,000 sterling.

Copper, tin, lead and iron are found in great abundance in Great-Britain, where there is made every year 50—60,000 tons of pig-iron, and 20—30,000 tons of bar-iron.

England possesses a great treasure in her inexhaustible coal-mines, which are worked chiefly in the northern counties, whence the coal is conveyed by sea, and by inland canals, to every part of the kingdom. The mines of Northumberland alone, send every year upwards of 600,000

chaldrons of coals to London, and 1500 veſſels are employed in carrying them along the eaſtern coaſt of England.

SCOTLAND's natural productions are greatly inferior to thoſe of England, both with reſpect to plenty and variety. It produces chiefly, flax, hemp, coals, ſome iron and much lead. The trade of this country conſiſts chiefly in linen, thread and coals; they have lately begun to manufacture cloth, carpets, ſugar, &c. *

IRELAND is, in moſt of its provinces, not inferior in fertility to England, but very far behind it in point of civilization and induſtry. This inferiority muſt be partly attributed to the idleneſs, ignorance, and oppreſſion of its inhabitants; and partly to the commercial jealouſy of the Britiſh legiſlation, from which Ireland has at length been emancipated. The chief articles of its produce are cattle, ſheep, hogs and flax; large quantities of excellent ſalted pork, beef and butter, are annually exported.

The Iriſh wool is very fine. The principal manufacture of Ireland is that of linen, which at preſent, is a very valuable article of exportation. Fifteen hundred perſons are employed in the ſilk manufactures at Dublin.

With the increaſe of liberty and induſtry, this kingdom will ſoon riſe to the commercial conſequence to which it is entitled by its fertility and ſituation.

The total of the exports from Ireland to Great Britain, in 1779 and 1780, at an average, was £.2,300,000. The balance is greatly in favour of Ireland.

The manufactures of England are confeſſedly, with very few exceptions, ſuperior to thoſe of other countries. For this ſuperiority they are nearly equally indebted to national character, to the ſituation of their country, and to their excellent conſtitution.

The Engliſh government, favourable to liberty, and to every exertion of genius, has provided, by wiſe and equitable laws, for the ſecure enjoyment of property acquired by ingenuity and labour, and has removed obſtacles to induſtry, by prohibiting the importation of ſuch articles from abroad which could be manufactured at home †.

* *Scotland, from the time of its (a) union with England in* 1707, *has been gradually riſing in wealth, commerce and agriculture.*

† *For one of the beſt books relating to Ireland, we cannot refrain from referring our readers to a volume in* 8vo. *of* Hiſtorical Tracts, *by Sir* John Davies, *Attorney General, and ſpeaker of the Houſe of Commons in Ireland. Conſiſting of,* 1ſt. *A Diſcovery of the true Cauſe why Ireland was never brought under Obedience to the crown of England.* 2d. *A Letter to the Earl of Salſbury on the State of Ireland in* 1607. 3d. *A Letter to the Earl of Salſbury in* 1610, *giving an Account of the Plantations in Ulſter.* 4th. *A Speech to the Lord Deputy in* 1613, *touching the ancient Conſtitution of Ireland. To which is prefixed, A new Life of the Author, from authentic Documents. By* George Chalmers, *Eſq.*

‡ *See* A Collection of Treaties between Great-Britain and other Powers. *By* George Chalmers. *Eſq.*

(a) For this great national event, ſee, *The Hiſtory of the Union between England and Scotland, by* Daniel De Foe; with *An Introduction to a ſimilar Union with Ireland, By* J. L. De Lolme.

The Britiſh iſlands, among other advantages for navigation, have coaſts, the ſea line of which, including both Great-Britain and Ireland, extends nearly 3,800 miles, whereas the ſea-coaſt of France has but 1000 miles. The commerce of Great-Britain is immenſe, and increaſing. In the years 1783 and 1784, the ſhips cleared outwards, amounting to 950,000 tons, exceeded the number of tons of the ſhips employed in 1760 (24 years before) by upwards of 400,000 tons. The value of the cargoes exported in 1784, amounted to upwards of £15,000,000; and the nett cuſtoms paid for them into the Exchequer were upwards of £.3,000,000 ſterling; and even this ſum was exceeded the following year, 1785, by upwards of £.1,000,000 ſterling.—The balance of trade in favour of England is eſtimated at £.3,000,000. The inland trade is valued at £.42,000,000 ſterling.—The fiſheries of Great Britain are numerous and very productive. The privileged trading companies, of which the Eaſt India Company, chartered in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, is the principal, carry on the moſt important foreign commerce.

The Bank of England was incorporated in 1694. This company, by the ſanction of parliament, deals in bills of exchange—it buys and ſells bullion, and manages government annuities paid at its office, Its credit is the moſt extenſive of any in Europe. It is one of the principal creditors of the nation, and the value of the ſhares in its ſtock runs very high.

Government.] The government of Great-Britain may be called a limited monarchy. It is a happy combination of a monarchical and popular government. The king has only the executive power; the legiſlative is ſhared by him and the parliament, or more properly by the people. The crown is hereditary; both male and female deſcendants are capable of ſucceſſion. The king muſt profeſs the Proteſtant religion.

Religion.] The eſtabiſhed religion in that part of Great-Britain, called England, is the Epiſcopal Church of England, of which the king, without any ſpiritual power, is the head. The revenues of the Church of England are ſuppoſed to be about £.3,000,000 ſterling. All other denominations of chriſtians, called Diſſenters, and jews, are tolerated.—

Four-fifths of the people of Ireland are Roman Catholics, and are conſequently excluded from all places of truſt and profit. Their clergy are numerous.—The Scotch are Preſbyterians, and are ſtrictly Calviniſts in doctrine and form of eccleſiaſtical government. The other moſt conſiderable religious ſects in England are Unitarians, Babtiſts, Quakers (60,000) Methodiſts, Roman Catholics (60000) 12,000 families of Jews—and French and German Lutherans and Calviniſts.

Hiſtory.] Britain was firſt inhabited by a tribe of Gauls. Fifty-two years before the birth of Chriſt, Julius Cæſar ſubjected them to the Roman empire. The Romans remained maſters of Britain 500 years, till they were called home in defence of their native country againſt the invaſions of the Goths and Vandals. The Picts, Scots and Saxons then took poſſeſſion of the iſland. In 1066, William duke of Normandy obtained a complete victory over Harold king of England, which is called the Norman conqueſt. *Magna Charta* was ſigned by John 1216. This is called the bulwark of Engliſh liberty. In 1485, the houſes of York and Lancaſter were united in Henry VII. after a long and bloody conteſt. The uſurpation of Cromwell took place in 1647. The revolution ſo

called on account of James the second's abdicating the throne, to whom William and Mary succeeded) happened 1688. Queen Anne succeeded William and Mary in 1702, in whom ended the Protestan line of Charles I. and George the first of the house of Hanover, ascen ded the throne in 1714, and the succession has been regular in this line George the Third is the present king.

ISLANDS, SEAS, MOUNTAINS, &c. OF EUROPE.

THE principal islands of Europe, are Great Britain and Ireland in the north. In the Mediterranean sea, are, Yvica, Majorca, and Minorca, subject to Spain. Corsica, subject to the French. Sardinia is subject to its own king; and Sicily is governed by a viceroy under the king of Naples, to whom the island belongs. The islands of the Baltic, the Adriatic and Ionian seas are not worthy of notice.

The principal seas, gulphs, and bays in Europe, are the Adriatic Sea, between Italy and Turkey; the Baltic Sea, between Denmark, Poland, and Sweden; the Bay of Biscay, between France and Spain; the English Channel, between England and France; the Euxine or Black Sea, between Europe and Asia; the German Ocean, between Germany and Britain; and the Mediterranean Sea, between Europe and Africa.

The chief mountains in Europe, are the Alps, between France and Italy; the Apennine Hills in Italy; the Pyrenean Hills, that divide France from Spain; the Carpathian Mountains, in the south of Poland; the Peak in Derbyshire; the Plinlimmon in Wales: besides the terrible Volcanos, or Burning Mountains, of Vesuvius and Stromboli, in Naples; Etna, in Sicily, and Ecla, in the cold island of Iceland.

A S I A.

THIS immense tract of country, stretches into all climates, from the frozen wilds of Siberia, where the hardy inhabitants, clothed in fur, are drawn in sledges over the snow; to the sultry regions of India and Siam, where, seated on the huge elephants, the people shelter themselves from the scorching sun by the spreading umbrella.

This is the principal quarter of the globe; for in Asia the All Wise Creator planted the garden of Eden, in which Adam and Eve were formed, from whom the whole human race have derived their existence. Asia became again the nursery of the world after the deluge, whence the descendants of Noah dispersed their various colonies into all the other parts of

of the globe. It was here our Saviour was born, and accomplished the great and merciful work of our redemption, and it was hence, that the light of his glorious gospel was carried, with amazing rapidity, into all the surrounding nations by his disciples and followers. This was, in short, the theatre of almost every action recorded in the Holy Scriptures.

This vast tract of land was, in the earliest ages, governed by the Assyrians, Medes, Persians, and Greeks, Upon the extinction of these empires, the Romans carried their arms even beyond the Ganges, till at length the Mahometans, or as they are usually called Saracens, spread their devastations over this continent, destroying all its ancient splendor, and rendering the most populous and fertile spots of Asia, wild and uncultivated deserts.

Among the highest mountains of Asia are Arrarat, near the Caspian Sea, on which the ark of Noah rested, when the waters of the deluge subsided: and Horeb and Sinai in Arabia.

Asia is bounded north, by the frozen Ocean; west, by Europe, and the Mediterranean and Red Seas; south, by the Indian Ocean; east, by the Pacific Ocean, and is reckoned to be 4800 miles in length, and 4300 in breadth; comprehending, besides islands,

	Chief Towns.	*Sq. Miles.*
The Empire of China,	Pekin,	1,105,000
The several nations of Tartary,	Tobolski, Tibet,	4,479,000
Persia, - -	Ispahan,	800,000
India, or the Mogul Empire,	Delhi,	1,867,500
Turkey, in Asia,	Jerusalem,	1,112,500
Arabia, - -	Mecca,	

TARTARY.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by the Frozen ocean; east, by the Pacific; south, by China, India, Persia, and the Caspian sea; west, by Russia; 3000 miles long, 2250 broad.

Air, soil, and productions.] The northern parts are excessively cold and barren, but the southern more temperate and fertile. The country abounds with unwholesome lakes and marshes, mountains and sandy deserts. Their commodities are chiefly skins of foxes, sables, ermine, lynxes and other furrs, also, flax, musk, rhubarb and cinnamon.

Religion.] The Tartars are chiefly pagans, mahometans, or christians; the first are most numerous.

Government.] Muscovite Tartary is subject to the Empress of Russia; Chinese Tartary to the Emperor of China; other parts of Tartary have their own princes, or *Chams*, and some are subject to Persia and the great Mogul.

Character.] The Tartars are in general strong made, stout men; some are honest and hospitable, others barbarous and live by plundering. The beauty

beauty of the Circaſian women is a kind of ſtaple commodity in that country; for parents there make no ſcruple of ſelling their daughters, to recruit the ſeraglio's of the great men of Turkey and Perſia. They avoid all labour as the greateſt ſlavery. Their only employment is tending their flocks, hunting and managing their horſes. If they are angry with a perſon, the worſt they wiſh him is, that he may live in one fixed place and work like a Ruſſian.

Hiſtory.] The firſt acknowledged ſovereign of theſe diſmal territories, was the famous Jenghis Khan, A. D. 1206. His deſcendants poſſeſſed it till 1582, when Mungls revolted to the Manchew Tartars, who reign in China. The Eluths became an independant ſtate about 1400, and ſo remain.

CHINA.

CHINA is bounded on the north, by part of Tartary; eaſt, by the Pacific ocean; ſouth, by part of the Indian ocean; weſt, by India without the Ganges; 1450 miles long, 1260 broad.

Rivers.] The principal rivers are, the Yamour, Argon, Yellow River and the Tay; beſides a prodigious number of navigable canals, which are very convenient. Great numbers of the Chineſe live conſtantly on the waters in theſe canals.

Chief cities.] This empire is ſaid to contain 4400 walled cities; the chief of which are, Pekin, the capital, Nankin and Canton. Pekin is reckoned to contain 2,000,000 inhabitants. This city is entered by ſeven iron gates, within ſide of each is a guard-houſe.

Government.] The emperor of China is abſolute. He is, however, obliged, by a maxim of ſtate, to conſider his ſubjects as children, and they regard him no longer, than while he behaves like a parent. The emperor is ſtyled, *Holy Son of Heaven, ſole Governor of the Earth, Great Father of his People.* The preſent emperor is deſcended from a Tartarian family; for about 150 years ago the Tartars over-ran and conquered this fine country. However, Tartary may now rather be ſaid to be ſubject to China, than China to Tartary, ſince all the wealth of the United Empire centers in China, and Tartary is no ſmall addition to its ſtrength.

Religion.] Natural religion, as explained by their celebrated philoſopher Confucius, is the eſtabliſhed religion of China. But the greater part of the people are groſs idolaters, and the moſt numerous ſect are thoſe who worſhip the idol Fohi, which was brought from Tibet ſoon after the death of our Saviour. The Mahometans have been tolerated in China for 6 or 700 years, and the Jews much longer. Chriſtianity had gained conſiderable footing in this empire, by the labours of the Jeſuits; but in the year 1726, thoſe miſſionaries, being ſuſpected of deſigns againſt the government, and teaching doctrines deſtructive of it, were quite expelled, and the chriſtian churches demoliſhed.

Character and inhabitants.] It is ſaid that China contains 158 millions of inhabitants, between 20 and 60 years of age, who pay an annual tax.

The

The Chineſe in their perſons are middle ſized, their faces broad, their eyes black and ſmall, and their noſes rather ſhort. It is thought good policy to forbid women from all trade and commerce, which they can only benefit by letting them alone. They women have little eyes, plump, roſy lips, black hair, regular features, and a delicate though florid complexion: the ſmallneſs of their feet is reckoned a principal part of their beauty, and no ſwathing is omitted when they are young, to give them that accompliſhment; ſo that when they grow up, they may be ſaid to totter rather than to walk.

Air, ſoil, and productions.] The air of China is generally temperate and good, though ſometimes very hot in the ſouthern provinces, and very cold in the northern. It is one of the moſt fruitful countries in the world; the mountains themſelves being cultivated to the top. The principal productions of China are ſilks, cotton, precious ſtones, porcelain or china ware, quickſilver, tea, which is peculiar to this country, ginger, camphire, japand works, gold, ſilver, copper, &c.

Curioſities.] One of the greateſt curioſities of China, and perhaps in the world, is that ſtupendious wall ſeparating China from Tartary, to prevent the incurſions of the Tartars. It is ſuppoſed to extend 1500 miles and is carried over mountains and vallies, from 20 to 25 feet high, and broad enough at the top for ſix horſemen to travel abreſt with eaſe. The Chineſe have upwards of 20,000 letters or characters in their language.

Hiſtory.] This empire is reported to have been founded by Fohi, who is ſaid to have been the Noah mentioned in the bible, about 2240 years before chriſt. It is now governed by the emperors of the Dynaſty of the Manchew Tartars, who conquered it, A. D. 1645.

INDIA IN GENERAL.

BOUNDED north, by Tartary; eaſt, by China and the Chineſe Sea; ſouth, by the Indian Ocean; weſt, by the ſame ocean and Perſia; length 4000 miles, breadth 2500.

Chief towns.] The capital cities of the Mogul's empire, are Agra and Delhi.

Air, ſoil, and productions.] In the northern parts of India the air is temperate; but very hot in the ſouthern. The heats, however, are moderated by refreſhing breezes from the ſea, and from the rains that fall continually from the end of June to the end of October. Some part of India, eſpecially in the northern provinces of the Mogul's empire, are ſandy, mountainous, and barren; but in general the ſoil is fertile, producing plenty of corn, and the fineſt fruits. It is well watered with rivers, the chief are the Ganges and Indus. Their commodities are ſilks, cottons, callicoes, muſlins, ſattins, taffeties, carpets, gold, ſilver, diamonds, pearls, porcelain,

porcelain, rice, ginger, amber, pepper, cinnamon, a great variety of medicinal drugs, and ſugar.

Government.] The Great Mogul is an abſolute monarch; but there are ſome princes in his dominions, called Rajahs, who maintain their independency. The other kings and princes of India are likewiſe abſolute, but ſome of them tributary, the weaker to the more powerful.

Religion.] The Moors or Moguls, who are a mixture of Tartars, Perſians, Arabs, &c. are Mahometans; but the natives of India, who are by far the moſt numerous, are chiefly Pagans, worſhipping idols of various ſhapes; many chriſtians are ſettled on the coaſt.

Character.] In general the Indians are ingenious in arts; civil to ſtrangers, and pretty juſt in their dealings; ſome are of a ſwarthy complexion, others are black as jet. They marry very young, the males before 14, females at 10 or 11. A man is in the decline of life at 30, and the beauty of the woman is on they decay at 18; at 25 they have all the marks of old age.

Hiſtory.] The firſt conqueror of the whole of this country was Jenghis Khan, a Tartarian prince, who died A. D. 1226. In 1399, Timur Beck, by conqueſt, became Great Mogul. The Dynaſty continued in his family till the conqueſt of Tamerlane in the 15th century, whoſe deſcendents have poſſeſſed the throne from that time; but Kouli Khan, the famous Sophi of Perſia, conſiderably diminiſhed the power of the Moguls, carried away immenſe treaſures from Delhi; and ſince that event many of the Rajahs and Nabobs, have made themſelves independent.

PERSIA.

BOUNDED north, by the Caſpian Sea; eaſt by India; ſouth, by the Perſian Gulf and Indian Ocean; weſt, by Aſiatic Turkey. Its length 1450 miles; its breadth 1250.

Capital.] The chief city and reſidence of the ſovereign is Iſpahan, a fine ſpacious town.

Air, ſoil, and productions.] The north and eaſt parts of Perſia are mountainous and cold; the provinces to the ſouth-eaſt are ſandy and deſart; thoſe on the ſouth and weſt are very fertile. The air in the ſouth is extremely hot in ſummer, and very unwholeſome. There is ſcarcely any country that has more mountains and fewer rivers. The productions of Perſia are ſimilar to thoſe of India.

Character of the inhabitants.] The Perſians are a brave, polite, and ingenious people; honeſt in their dealings, and civil to ſtrangers. Their great foible ſeems to be oſtentation in their equipages.

Religion.] The Perſians, in general, are ſtrict followers of Mahomet's doctrine, but differ conſiderably from the Turks. There are many Chriſtians in Perſia, and a ſect who worſhip fire, the followers of Zoroaſter.

Government.] Perſia is governed by an abſolute monarch, called Shah or King, and frequently Sophi. The crown is hereditary, but females are excluded.

Hiſtory.] The Perſian empire was founded by Cyrus, after his conqueſt of Media, 436 years before Chriſt. It continued till it was overthrown by Alexander the Great, 331 years before Chriſt. A new empire, ſtyled the Parthian, was formed by the Perſians under Arbaces, 250 years before Chriſt: but in A. D. 229, Artaxerxes reſtored it to its ancient title; and in 651, the Saracens put an end to that empire. From this time Perſia was a prey to the Tartars, and a province of Indoſtan, till Thomas Kouli Khan, once more reſtored it to a powerful kingdom. He was aſſaſſinated in 1747.

ARABIA.

BOUNDED north, by Turkey; eaſt, by the Gulphs of Perſia and Ormus; ſouth, by the Straits of Babel-mandel and the Indian Ocean; weſt, by the Red Sea; length 1300, breadth 1200.

In that part of Arabia, called the Holy Land, the inhabitants enjoy a pure and healthful air, and a fertile ſoil. The middle, called Arabia Deſerta; is overſpread with barren mountains, rocks, and ſandy deſerts. But the ſouthern parts, deſervedly called the Happy, although the air is hot and unwholeſome, is bleſſed with an excellent and very fertile ſoil, producing balm of Gilead, manna, myrrh, caſſia, aloes, frankincenſe, ſpikenard, and other valuable gums;—cinnamon, pepper, oranges, lemons, &c.—The Arabians, like moſt of the Aſiatics, are of a middling ſtature, thin, and of a ſwarthy complexion, with black hair and black eyes. They are much addicted to thieving. In 1750, a body of 50,000 Arabians, attacked a caravan of merchants and pilgrims, returning from Mecca, killed 60,000 perſons, and plundered them of every thing valuable, though eſcorted by a Turkiſh army.—The Arabians in general are Mahometans, though there are ſome Pagans.—They have many princes, ſome tributary to the Turks, others independent.—The Arabs are deſcended from Iſhmael, of whoſe poſterity it was foretold, that they ſhould be invincible, and *have their hands againſt every man, and every man's hands againſt them.* The famous impoſtor Mahomet was born at Mecca in the ſixth century. He fled to Medina, A. D. 622. This is called the Hegira or Flight, from whence the Mahometans compute their time. He died 629, having propagated his doctrines through Arabia, Syria, Egypt, and Perſia, leaving two branches of his race, both eſteemed divine by their ſubjects.

TURKEY IN ASIA.

BOUNDED north, by the Black Sea and Circaſſia; eaſt, by Perſia; ſouth, by Arabia and the Levant Sea; weſt, by the Archipelago, the Helleſpont, and Propontis; length 1000 miles, breadth 800.

The air is naturally delightful, ſerene, and ſalubrious, yet the inhabitants are frequently viſited with the plague. The ſoil is calculated to produce all the neceſſaries, agreeables, and even luxuries of life.—The Grand Seignior is abſolute ſovereign of the Turkiſh empire, who appoints Baſhaws or Beglerbegs to govern the ſeveral provinces.—Mahometaniſm is the eſtabliſhed religion of the Turkiſh dominions.—The Turks, when young, are well made and robuſt. Their eyes and hair are black. The women look old at 30.—Turkey in Aſia contains many large provinces, particularly Syria, Judea, or Paleſtine, Phœnicia, &c. which are ſubject to the Turks. In Paleſtine, or the Holy Land, and the countries adjacent, were Babylon, Damaſcus, Nineveh, Tyre, Sidon, Samaria, Bethlehem, Nazareth, and Jeruſalem the capital, which was taken, pillaged, burnt, and entirely razed to the ground by Titus, the Roman general, under Domitian, in the year 70, and is now a very inconſiderable place, and only famous for what it has been; for there Jeſus Chriſt preached the Chriſtian religion, and was crucified by the Jews upon Mount Calvary. Epheſus is in the leſſer Aſia, famous for the temple of Diana, which Eroſtratus burnt, in order to immortalize his memory. Near Jeruſalem is the lake *Aſphaltites*, or the *Dead Sea*, being the place where Sodom and Gomorrah ſtood. In Meſopotamia, between the Euphrates and the Tigris, is ſuppoſed to have been the Garden of Eden. There are now no remains of the tower of Babel, or the city of Babylon, nor is the place where they ſtood exactly known. Owls now dwell there, and wild beaſts and dragons in their pleaſant places (*Iſaiah* xiii. 20, *&c.*) Nineveh too, once the capital of the Aſſyrian empire, is now known only by its ruins.

ASIATIC ISLES.

THE Japan Iſlands forming an empire governed by a moſt deſpotic king, lie about 150 miles eaſt of China. The ſoil and production of theſe iſlands are much the ſame as thoſe of China. The Japaneſe are the groſſeſt idolaters, and irreconcileable to Chriſtianity. They are of a yellow complexion, narrow eyes, ſhort noſes, black hair. A ſameneſs of dreſs prevails through the whole empire, from the emperor to the peaſant. The firſt compliment offered to a ſtranger in their houſes, is a diſh of tea, and a pipe of tobacco. Obedience to parents, and reſpect to ſuperiors, characterize the nation. Their penal laws are very ſevere, but puniſhment

punishment is seldom inflicted. The inhabitants have made great progress in commerce and agriculture.

Formosa is a fine island east of China, abounding in all the necessaries of life.

The Philipines, 1100 in number, lying 200 miles south-east of China, belonging to Spain, are fruitful in all the necessaries of life, and beautiful to the eye. They are, however, subject to earthquakes, thunder, and lightning, venomous beasts, and noxious herbs, whose poison kills instantaneously. They are subject to the Spanish government. The Sultan of Mindanao is a Mahometan.

Borneo, 800 miles long, and 700 broad, is thought to be the largest island in the world. It lies on the equator, and is famous for being the native country of the Ouran Outang, which, of all irrational animals, resembles a man the most.

Sumatra, west of Borneo produces so much gold that it is thought to be the Ophir mentioned in the Scriptures.

Ceylon belongs to the Dutch, and is said to be by nature the richest and finest island in the world. The natives call it, with some shew of reason, the terrestrial paradise. They are a sober inoffensive people; but idolaters. This island is noted for the cinnamon tree.

AFRICA.

AFRICA is situated south of Europe, and surrounded on all sides by the sea, except a narrow neck of land about 60 miles over, called the Isthmus of Suez, which joins it to Asia at the north end of the Red Sea. Africa is about 4300 miles in length, and 3500 in breadth and lies chiefly in the torrid zone, the equator running through the middle of it. Here once dwelt the queen of Sheba, who, on paying a visit to the magnificent king Solomon, stood amazed at his wisdom and the glory of his court. Here we find a race of people quite black, supposed to be descendants of *Ham*.

Africa will be considered under the 7 following divisions:

1 Egypt,
2 Barbary,
3 Zaara or the Desert,
4 Negroland,
5 Guinea,
6 Ethiopia,
7 The African Islands.

EGYPT.

Boundaries. BOUNDED east, by the Red Sea and the Isthmus of Suez; west, by Barca; north, by the Mediterranean; south, by Nubia and Abyssinia; 600 miles in length, and 350 in breadth, including the Deserts.

Capital.] Grand Cairo, one of the most populous cities in the world, and a place of great trade and riches.

Air

Air, Soil and Productions.] The air of Egypt is for the moſt part hot and unwholeſome; but the ſoil is exceedingly fruitful, occaſioned by the annual overflowing of the Nile, which leaves a fattening ſlime behind it. Thoſe parts not overflowed by the Nile are uncultivated, ſandy and barren. Egypt produces corn, rice, ſugar, flax, linen, ſalt, ſal ammoniac, balſam, and various ſorts of fruits and drugs.

Religion and Government.] Egypt is governed by a Baſhaw ſent from Conſtantinople, being a province of the Turkiſh empire. The Turks and Arabs are Mahometans. Mahometaniſm is the eſtabliſhed religion of Egypt; but there are many Chriſtians called Copts, and the Jews are very numerous.

Egypt is famous for its pyramids, thoſe ſtupenduous works of folly. The Egyptians were the only people who were acquainted with the art of embalming or preſerving dead bodies from putrefaction. Here is the river Nile celebrated for its fertilizing inundations, and for the ſubtle voracious crockodiles which inhabit its ſhores. This was the theatre of thoſe remarkable tranſactions, which makes up the beautiful and affecting hiſtory of Joſeph. Here Pharoah exhibited ſcenes of cruelty, tyranny, and oppreſſion towards the Iſraelites, in the courſe of their 400 years bondage to the Egyptians. Here too Moſes was born, and was preſerved in the little ark, among the flags on the banks of the Nile. Here, through the inſtrumentality of this great man, the Egyptians were afflicted with many grievous plagues, which induced them at laſt to *let Iſrael go*. Here Moſes, with his rod, divided the Red ſea, and Iſrael paſſed it on dry land; which the Egyptians attempting to do, were overwhelmed by the returning of the waters. To this ſcene, ſucceeded the Iſraelites memorable 40 years march through the deſerts of Arabia, before they reached the land of Canaan.

BARBARY.

BARBARY (including Bidulgerid) is bounded ſouth, by Zaara; eaſt, by Egypt; north, by the Mediterranean, weſt, by the Atlantic Ocean; length 2300 miles, breadth 700.

Air, Soil and Productions.] The ſtates, under the Roman empire, were juſtly denominated the garden of the world. The air is temperate and generally healthful. The ſoil is rich, producing plenty of corn, fruits and paſture. But ſome parts are ſandy and barren, and others are overrun with woods and mountains.

Character.] The Moors, who are the original inhabitants of Barbary, dwell chiefly in Morocco, and are ſaid to be a covetous, inhoſpitable, treacherous people. The Arabs, who are diſperſed all over this country, follow their common trade of robbing travellers.

The women of Tunis are exceſſively handſome, and very delicate. They improve the beauty of their eyes, by the uſe of the powder of lead-ore, ſuppoſed to be the ſame pigment that Jezebel made uſe of (II Kings ix. 30.) to paint her face; the words in the original ſignifying, that ſhe ſet off her eyes with the powder of lead-ore.

Religion and Government.] Mahometaniſm, in its worſt form, prevails throughout the ſtates of Barbary. The emperor of Morocco is an arbitrary prince. Algiers is governed by a Prince, called the Dey, elected by the army. The ſovereign of Tunis and Tripoli, called Beys, are not ſo independent as the former. Theſe three ſtates may be looked upon as republics of ſoldiers under the protection of the Grand Seignior. Algiers belongs to the Spaniards, and is a neſt of pirates. On this coaſt ſtood the famous city of Carthage, which was deſtroyed by the Romans. Among the great men Africa has produced, are Tertullian, Cyprian, Julius Africanus, Arnobius, Lactantius and St. Auſtin, all biſhops of the church. The warriors of note are Hamilcar, Hannibal, and Aſdrubal. Among the poets are, Terence and Apuleius.

ZAARA, OR THE DESERT.

IT has Barbary north; Egypt and Nubia eaſt; Negroland and Guinea ſouth; and the Atlantic weſt; 2500 miles long, and 500 broad.

The air of this country is very hot, but wholeſome to the natives. The ſoil is generally ſandy and barren, inſomuch that the caravans croſſing this country, to and from Negroland, are often reduced to great extremities. The inhabitants of this country are wild and ignorant. They have a number of petty princes, but for the moſt part, have few ſigns of any government at all. The Mahometan religion is profeſſed throughout the country.

NEGROLAND.

THIS country lies ſouth of Zaara; 2300 miles long, and 700 broad. The air is very hot, but wholeſome. The ſoil is fertile, eſpecially near the river Niger, which runs through the country from eaſt to weſt, and overflows at a certain time of the year like the Nile. The commodities of this country are gold, ſlaves, elephants-teeth, bees-wax, and ſome drugs. There is a well here, whoſe water is as ſweet as ordinary ſugar. The Negroes are an uncivilized, ignorant, crafty, robuſt people. Their colour is deep black, their hair ſhort, like wool, flat noſes, thick lips, and white, even teeth. The Negroes are governed by a number of abſolute princes. The inhabitants are moſtly pagans and idolaters.

GUINEA lies ſouth of Negroland, 1800 miles long, 600 broad. The ſoil is preferable to that of Negroland. The inhabitants are more courteous and ſenſible; in other reſpects the difference is immaterial. The greater part of the poor Negroes in the Weſt-Indies and the ſouthern ſtates, were brought from theſe two countries.

ETHIOPIA.

UNDER the general name of Ethiopia is included all the remaining part of Africa; containing an extent of 3600 miles from north to south, and 200 from east to west. The air of this country is generally excessive hot, and the soil barren, though on the banks of the rivers it is fertile, and produces rice, citrons, lemons, sugar canes, &c. The Ethiopians are an ignorant, uncivilized, superstitious people. Their government is absolute, lodged in the hands of a great number of princes, the small ones are tributary to the greater. The Mahometan and Pagan religions prevail in Ethiopia.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

AT the mouth of the Red Sea; is the island that sailors now call Socrata, famous for its aloes, which are esteemed the best in the world Sailing down, southward, we come to the island Madagascar, or Lawrence, abounding in cattle and corn, and most of the necessaries of life, but no sufficient merchandize to induce Europeans to settle colonies; it has several petty savage kings of its own, both Arabs and Negroes, who making war on each other, sell their prisoners for slaves to the shipping which call here, taking clothes, utensils and other necessaries in return.

Near it are the four Comorra isles, whose petty kings are tributary to the Portugeuse; and near these lies the French island Bourbon; and a little higher Maurice, so called by the Dutch, who first touched here in 1598. It is now in the possession of the French.

Quitting the eastern world and the Indies, and passing round the Cape of Good Hope, into the wide Atlantic ocean, the first island is the small, but pleasant St. Helena, at which place all the English East-India ships stop to get water and fresh provisions in their way home. Near this are the Guinea islands, St. Matthew, St. Thomas and others; not far from the coast under the Equinoctial line, belonging to the Portuguese. These were so named by the sailors, who first found them on St. Helen's, St. Thomas' and St. Mathews' festivals.

Thence northward, are the Cepe Verd islands, so called from their verdure. They now belong to the Portuguese, who are furnished from thence with salt and goats skins.

Further north are the pleasant Canaries, belonging to the Spaniards, from whence first came Canary wine, and the beautiful singing birds, called Canary birds. The ancients called them the Fortunate Isles, and placed there the Elysian fields. They are ten or twelve in number, the chief are Teneriffe, Gomera, Ferro, and Great Canary. The fertile islands of Madeira lie still higher north, and famous for the best stomachic wine. They belong to the Portuguese

"THE varieties among the human race, says Dr. Percival, enumerated by Linnæus, and Buffon, are six. The first is found under the polar regions, and comprehends the Laplanders, the Esquimaux Indians, the Samoeid Tartars, the inhabitants of Nova Zembla, the Borandians, the Greenlanders, and the people of Kamschatka. The visage of men, in these countries, is large and broad; the nose flat and short; the eyes of a yellowish brown, inclining to blackness; the cheek bones extremely high; the mouth large; the lips thick; and turning outwards; the voice thin and squeaking; and the skin a dark grey colour. The people are short in stature, the generality being about four feet high, and the tallest not more than five. Ignorance, stupidity, and superstition are the mental characteristics of the inhabitants of these rigorous climates. For here

Doze the gross race. Nor sprightly jest nor song,
Nor tenderness they know, nor aught of life,
Beyond the kindred bears that stalk without.

The Tartar race, comprehending the Chinese, and the Japanese, form the second variety in the human species. Their countenances are broad and wrinkled, even in youth; their noses short and flat; their eyes little, sunk in the sockets, and several inches asunder; their cheek bones are high; their teeth of a large size, and separate from each other; their complexions are olive, and their hair black. These nations, in general, have no religion, no settled notions of morality, and no decency of behaviour. They are chiefly robbers; their wealth consists in horses, and their skill in the management of them.

The third variety of mankind is that of the southern Asiatics, or the inhabitants of India. These are of a slender shape, have long, straight, black hair, and generally Roman noses. These people are slothful, luxurious, submissive, cowardly and effeminate.

——The parent Sun himself
Seems o'er this world of slaves to tyrannize;
And, with oppressive ray, the roseate bloom
Of beauty blasting, gives the blooming hue,
And features gross: or worse, to ruthless deeds,
Mad jealousy, blind rage, and fell revenge,
Their fervid spirit fires. Love dwells not there,
The soft regards, the tenderness of life,
The heart-shed tear, th' ineffable delight
Of sweet humanity: these court the beam
Of milder climes; in selfish fierce desire,
And the wild fury of voluptuous sense,
There lost. The very brute creation there
This rage partakes, and burns with horrid fire.

The negroes of Africa constitute the fourth striking variety in the human species: But they differ widely from each other; those of Guinea, for instance, are extremely ugly, and have an insupportably offensive scent; while those of Mosambique are reckoned beautiful, and are unrainted with any disagreeable smell. The negroes are, in general, of a

black

black colour; and the downy softness of hair which grows upon the skin, gives a smoothness to it, resembling that of velvet. The hair of their heads is woolly, short and black; but their beards often turn grey, and sometimes white. Their noses are flat and short, their lips thick and tumid, and their teeth of an ivory whiteness.

The intellectual and moral powers of these wretched people are uncultivated; and they are subject to the most barbarous despotism. The savage tyrants who rule over them, make war upon each other for *human plunder!* and the wretched victims, bartered for spiritous liquors, are torn from their families, their friends, and their native land, and consigned for life to misery, toil and bondage. But how am I shocked to inform you, that this infernal commerce is carried on by the humane, the polished, the christian inhabitants of Europe; nay even by Englishmen, whose ancestors have bled in the cause of liberty, and whose breasts still glow with the same generous flame! I cannot give you a more striking proof of the ideas of horror which the captive negroes entertain of the state of servitude they are to undergo, than by relating the following incident from Dr. Goldsmith.

'A Guinea captain was, by distress of weather, driven into a certain harbour, with a lading of sickly slaves, who took every opportunity to throw themselves over-board, when brought upon deck for the benefit of fresh air. The captain perceiving, among others, a female slave attempting to drown herself, pitched upon her as a proper example for the rest. As he supposed that they did not know the terrors attending death, he ordered the woman to be tied with a rope under the arm-pits, and let down into the water. When the poor creature was thus plunged in, and about half way down, she was heard to give a terrible shriek, which at first was ascribed to her fears of drowning, but soon after, the water appeared red around her, she was drawn up, and it was found that a shark, which had followed the ship, had bitten her off from the middle.'

The native inhabitants of America make a fifth race of men. They are of a copper colour, have black, thick, straight hair, flat noses, high cheek bones, and small eyes. They paint the body and face of various colours, and eradicate the hair of their beards and other parts, as a deformity. Their limbs are not so large and robust as those of the Europeans. They endure hunger, thirst, and pain with astonishing firmness and patience; and though cruel to their enemies, they are kind and just to each other.

The Europeans may be considered as the last variety of the human kind. They enjoy singular advantages from the fairness of their complexions. The face of the African Black, or of the olive-coloured Asiatic, is a very imperfect index of the mind, and preserves the same settled shade in joy and sorrow, confidence and shame, anger and despair, sickness and health. The English are said to be of the fairest of the Europeans; and we may therefore presume, that their countenances best express the variations of the passions and vicissitudes of disease. But the intellectual and moral characteristics of the different nations, which compose this quarter of the globe, are of much importance to be known. These, however, become gradually less discernible, as fashion, learning, and commerce prevail more universally.'

APPEN-

APPENDIX.

NOTE I.

THE following note will correct what was ſaid, page 87, in reſpect to the ſtate of our commerce with France.

'A diſtinction muſt be made between the arret of 1785 and that of 1787. The firſt grants privileges in certain caſes to all neutrals, the ſecond is entirely in favour of the Americans. But both are for their advantage. Whenever they ſhall enjoy a permanent and ſolid government, on whoſe meaſures ſome reliance may be given, then it may be expected that the king of France will give effect to the diſpoſition which his majeſty has conſtantly harboured towards the United States. But no regulation can be ſolid which is not founded on reciprocal advantage. To obtain, a nation ſhould be able to grant. That has not been the caſe with the United States towards France. They have not ever been able to make good the treaty of commerce on which their firſt connection with France is grounded. Many grievances exiſt againſt the United States, where the few French navigators have been liable to many inconveniences from the ficklenes and imperfection of the laws of individual ſtates. Juſtice muſt be the firſt baſis on which induſtry may repoſe. France will always grant more than ſhe may receive, but her ſubjects muſt find in the United States, protecting and ſolid laws. That will certainly be the effect of a wiſe and a general government. It may then be pronounced that the æra of the new conſtitution will alſo be the æra of a renewal of a laſting and uſeful connection between two nations, who have no motive for rivalſhip, and who have many natural reaſons to be ſtrongly connected beſides what ſentiment may inſpire.'

NOTE II.

The following Extract from the Journals of Mr. ELKANAH WATSON; a gentleman who has travelled extenſively both in Europe and America, merits a place in a book of this kind; and would have been inſerted in the body of the work, had the journals been timely received.

'When the extent of America is conſidered, boldly fronting the old world—bleſſed with every climate—capable of every production—abounding with the beſt harbours and rivers on the globe, and already overſpread with three millions of ſouls, moſtly deſcendents of Engliſhmen—inheriting all their ancient enthuſiaſm for liberty, and enterpriſing almoſt to a fault—what may be expected from ſuch a people in ſuch a country?—— The partial hand of nature has laid off America upon a much larger ſcale than any other part of the world. Hills in America are mountains in Europe—brooks are rivers, and ponds are ſwelled into lakes. In ſhort the map of the world cannot exhibit a country uniting ſo many natural advantages, ſo pleaſingly diverſified, and that offers ſuch abundant and eaſy reſources to agriculture and commerce.

In

In contemplating *future America*, the mind is loſt in the din of cities—in harbours and rivers clouded with ſails—and in the immenſity of her population. Admitting her preſent population to be three millions, and calculating her progreſſive increaſe to continue doubling once in twenty years, as has hitherto been the caſe, at the end of one hundred years there will be ninety-ſix millions of ſouls in United America; which is two-thirds as many as there are at preſent in all Europe. And when we conſider the probable acquiſition of people, by foreign emigrations, and that the interior and unſettled parts of America are amply ſufficient to provide for this number; the preſumption is ſtrong, that this eſtimation will not differ materially from the event.

Europe is already aware of the riſing importance of America, and begins to look forward with anxiety to her Weſt India Iſlands, which are the natural legacy of this continent, and will doubtleſs be claimed as ſuch when America ſhall have arrived at an age which will enable her to maintain her right.

The northern and ſouthern ſtates differ widely in their cuſtoms, climate, produce, and in the general face of the country. The middle ſtates preſerve a medium in all theſe reſpects; they are neither ſo level and hot as the ſtates ſouth; nor ſo hilly and cold as thoſe north and eaſt. The inhabitants of the north are hardy, induſtrious, frugal, and in general well informed; thoſe of the ſouth are more effeminate, indolent, and imperious. The fiſheries and commerce are the ſinews of the north; tobacco, rice, and indigo, of the ſouth. The northern ſtates are commodiouſly ſituated for trade and manufactures; the ſouthern, to furniſh proviſions and raw materials; and the probability is, that the ſouthern ſtates will one day be ſupplied with northern manufactures inſtead of European, and make their remittances in proviſions and raw materials.'

NOTE III.

The following obſervations on the ſubject of the probable revenue that would reſult to the United States from the impoſt and exciſe, were communicated by a gentleman who, from his ſituation in public life, from the attention he has paid to the ſources of public revenue in this country, and from the pains he has taken to collect the facts on which the following eſtimate is founded, is capable of giving as accurate information on the ſubject as the nature of the caſe will admit.

'From the want of accurate documents of former collections under the ſtate regulations, it is not poſſible to determine with preciſion, the amount of the revenue which may be relied on from theſe ſources, under the new form of government.—I am, however, clearly of opinion, from ſeveral returns I have ſeen of the former impoſt and exciſe duties, in ſome principal importing ſtates, that after the regulations adopted by Congreſs, have had their complete operation, the produce of theſe duties, without encouraging contraband, or other frauds on the revenue, may be eſtimated at 2,000,000 dollars.—This ſum, it is true, will at preſent fall ſhort of what is neceſſary to defray the expences of the civil government, and to diſcharge the intereſt of the foreign and domeſtic debt.—But by the aids of a national bank properly organized, it will be eaſy and perfectly ſafe to borrow in anticipation, ſuch ſums as may be deficient, annually for thoſe purpoſes, pledging the above revenue (which will conſtantly encreaſe

creaſe rapidly with the population of the country) as a fund of reimburſement.—This is practiſed in other countries, under ſimilar circumſtances, in ſupport of public credit, and may undoubtedly be done in this,—more eſpecially, as the Capital of the domeſtic debt will be conſtantly decreaſing by a judicious diſpoſal of lands in the Weſtern Territory, and means may be deviſed of inducing the domeſtic creditors to agree to a reduction of the preſent rate of intereſt.

With reſpect to direct taxes, I am of opinion, that in times of peace, little, if any, recourſe need be had to them :—It is, however, abſolutely neceſſary that the general government ſhould be inveſted with the power of levying them, becauſe in times of war, or the calamities to which all nations are ſubjected, the ſources of impoſt and exciſe may be ſo diminiſhed as not to be adequate to the means of national defence—and every government ought undoubtedly to have the means of preſerving itſelf.

I know it has been ſaid, that on ſuch great occaſions, requiſitions may be relied on ; but paſt experience proves the fallacy of this obſervation ; for if during a war, whoſe object was to reſcue the whole body of the people, from the moſt ignominious ſlavery, the earneſt and repeated recommendations of Congreſs, could not draw forth from the ſtates any contributions of money in the leaſt degree proportionate to the public exigencies, what could be expected on future occaſions ? Nothing elſe than ſubjecting the citizens of the ſtates moſt contigious to the ſcene of action to a ruinous depredation of property ; whilſt thoſe in the diſtant ſtates would not only be perfectly free of any burthen, but diſpute, when the danger was over, the juſtice of reimburſement.—To ſuch acts of violation of private rights, it is well known that the citizens of New York, Jerſey, and Pennſylvania, were peculiarly ſubjected, during the late war ; and if they are wiſe, they will never again expoſe themſelves to the ſame hazard.

Number of Repreſentatives according to the return of the Cenſus now made from the ſeveral States, if the ratio of repreſentation eſtabliſhed be of

No. of Repreſentatives from	1 for 30000	if 1 for 33000	if 1 for 34000	if 1 for 40000
Vermont	2	2	2	2
New Hampſhire	4	4	4	3
Maſſachuſetts	15	14	14	12
Rhode Iſland	2	2	2	1
Connecticut	7	7	6	5
New-York	11	10	9	8
New-Jerſey	5	5	5	4
Pennſylvania	14	13	12	10
Delaware	1	1	1	1
Maryland	9	8	8	6
Virginia	20	19	18	15
Kentuckey	2	2	2	1
North-Carolina	11	10	10	8
Georgia	2	2	2	1

And allowing South-Carolina, which ſtate has made no return, upon a ſuppoſition 5 members, in every caſe, the total number of members in each caſe would then be

Total —	110	104	100	82

SCHEDULE

SCHEDULE,

Of the whole Number of Persons within the several Districts of the UNITED STATES, *according to an Act* "*Providing for the Enumeration of the Inhabitants of the* UNITED STATES," *passed March the First, One Thousand Seven Hundred and Ninety-one.*

DISTRICTS.	Free white males of 16 years and upwards, including heads of families.	Free white males under sixteen years.	Free white females including heads of families.	All other free persons.	Slaves.	Total.
Vermont,	22,435	22,328	40,505	252	16	85,539
New-Hampshire,	36,086	34,851	70,160	630	158	141,885
Maine,	24,384	24,748	46,870	538	none	96,540
Massachusetts,	95,453	87,289	190,582	5,463	none	378,787
Rhode Island,	16,019	15,799	32,662	3,407	948	68,825
Connecticut,	60,523	54,403	117,448	2,808	2,764	237,946
New-York,	83,700	78,122	152,320	4,654	21,324	340,120
New-Jersey,	45,251	41,416	83,287	2,762	11,453	184,139
Pennsylvania,	110,788	106,948	206,363	6,537	3,737	434,173
Delaware,	11,783	12,143	22,384	3,899	8,887	59,094
Maryland,	55,915	51,339	101,395	8,043	103,036	319,728
Virginia,	110,936	116,135	215,046	12,866	292,627	747,610
Kentucky,	15,154	17,057	28,922	114	12,430	73,677
North-Carolina,	69,988	77,506	140,710	4,975	100,572	393,751
South-Carolina,						240,000
Georgia,	13,103	14,044	25,739	398	29,264	82,548

	Free white males of 21 years and upwards, including heads of families.	Free males under 21 years of age.	Free white females, including heads of families.	All other persons.	Slaves.	Total.
South-Western Territory	6,271	10,277	15,365	361	3,417	35,691
North-Western Territory						5000
						3,925,253

Truly stated from the original returns deposited in the office of the Secretary of State.

October 24, 1791.

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

EVANS's

EVAN's POLYMETRIC TABLE OF AMERICA,

CORRECTED AND IMPROVED,

Shewing the DISTANCES between the PRINCIPAL TOWNS.

The Distance in British Miles, between two Places, is found in the small square at the Intersection of the Lines, drawn both Ways, from those Places; as for Example, the Distance from *Boston* to *Williamsburg* 659 Miles; from *Charlestown to Quebec* 1396 Miles.

										Mo
										New
										Newcastle De
										Newhaven, C
										NEWPORT, Rhode Is
										NEW YORK
									Falls of Niagara, Province of Quebec	57
									Oswego, New York	200 37
								PENSACOLA, West Florida	1826	1671 146
							PHILADELPHIA, Pennsylvania	1372	454	619 9
						Prince Town, West New Jersey	43	1415	411	571 5
					QUEBEC.	626	669	2841	440	640 58
				ST. AUGUSTINE, East Florida	1726	1100	1057	315	1511	1470 115
			SAVANNAH, Georgia	220	1506	880	937	535	1291	1250 93
		WILLIAMSBURG, Virginia	534	754	972	346	303	1069	757	602 40
	Winchester, Virginia	174	708	928	885	259	166	1243	670	619 31

SCHEDULE.

Of the whole Number of Persons within the several Districts of the UNITED STATES, *according to an Act* "*Providing for the Enumeration of the Inhabitants of the* UNITED STATES," *passed March the First, One Thousand Seven Hundred and Ninety-one.*

DISTRICTS.	Free white males of 16 years and upwards, including heads of families.	Free white males under sixteen years.	Free white females including heads of families.	All other free persons.	Slaves.	Total.
Vermont,	22,435	22,328	40,505	252	16	85,539
New-Hampshire,	36,086	34,851	70,160	630	158	141,885
Maine,	24,384	24,748	46,870	538	none	96,540
Massachusetts,	95,453	87,289	190,582	5,463	none	378,787
Rhode Island,	16,019	15,799	32,662	3,407	948	68,825
Connecticut,	60,523	54,403	117,448	2,808	2,764	237,946
New-York,	83,700	78,122	152,320	4,654	21,324	340,120
New-Jersey,	45,251	41,416	83,287	2,762	11,453	184,139
Pennsylvania,	110,788	106,948	206,363	6,537	3,737	434,173
Delaware,	11,783	12,143	22,384	3,899	8,887	59,094
Maryland,	55,915	51,339	101,395	8,043	103,036	319,728
Virginia,	110,936	116,135	215,046	12,866	292,627	747,610
Kentucky,	15,154	17,057	28,922	114	12,430	73,677
North-Carolina,	69,988	77,506	140,710	4,975	100,572	393,751
South-Carolina,						240,000
Georgia,	13,103	14,044	25,739	398	29,264	82,548

	Free white males of 21 years and upwards, including heads of families.	Free males under 21 years of age.	Free white females, including heads of families.	All other persons.	Slaves.	Total.
South-Western Territory	6,271	10,277	15,365	361	3,417	35,691
North-Western Territory						5000
						3,925,253

Truly stated from the original returns deposited in the office of the Secretary of State.

October 24, 1701.

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

EVAN's Polymetric Table of America,

Corrected and Improved,

Shewing the Distances between the Principal Towns.

The Diſtance in Britiſh Miles, between two Places, is found in the ſmall ſquare at the Interſection of the Lines, drawn both Ways, from thoſe Places; as for Example, the Diſtance from *Boſton* to *Williamſburg* 659 Miles; from *Charleſtown to Quebec* 1396 Miles.

	Albany, in New York	Alexandria (or Belhaven in Virginia	Amboy, Eaſt New Jerſey	Annapolis, Maryland	Boston, in New England	Burlington, Weſt New Jerſey	Charlestown, South Carolina	Crown Point, New York	Fort Detroit, Province of Quebec	Fort Duqueſne (now Pittſburg) Pennſylvania	Fredrickſburgh, Virginia	Fort Frontenac, Province of Quebec	Halifax, Nova Scotia	Lancaſter, Pennſylvania	Marlborough, Virginia	Montreal, Province of Quebec	New Bern, South Carolina	Newcaſtle Delaware Counties	Newhaven, Connecticut,	Newport, Rhode Iſland,	New York	Falls of Niagara, Province of Quebec	Oſwego, New York	Pensacola, Weſt Florida	Philadelphia, Pennſylvania	Prince Town, Weſt New Jerſey	Quebec	St. Augustine, Eaſt Florida	Savannah, Georgia	Williamsburg, Virginia	Wincheſter, Virginia
Albany, in New York		391	243	168	217	136	371	498	281	524	150	333	165	52	145	206	750	1083	595	802	592	970	1096	392	290	511	308	537	140	835	1139	745	845	626	832	766	695	350	723	700	377	710	275	442	283	585	281	521	598	531	262	585	97	314	61	458	763	550	554	340	1361	511	455	676	473	702	305	940	1115	1240	1555	820	1613	863	530	1028	811	1054	680	972	600	181	288	740	435	610	89	442	114	141	120	295	175	1119	757	14	314	664	592	537	246	589	91	298	55	452	722	560	750	190	963	735	740	150	1226	476	420	641	458	667	270	962	273	346	1349	997	267	551	875	832	264	486	819	331	438	328	692	428	534	181	55	921	569	204	343	734	404	692	58	391	107	110	133	264	221	649	390	409	252	700	425	427	540	815	260	913	143	170	328	102	354	124	110	331	759	440	519	362	600	475	535	650	865	310	1023	273	70	438	192	464	170	170	80	132	560	416	320	163	789	451	336	451	841	286	824	74	259	239	22	265	146	571	595	545	608	762	470	521	553	1105	280	521	265	270	620	1026	639	575	400	580	496	425	200	371	395	345	489	917	270	677	520	904	80	721	465	470	420	1181	431	374	596	380	622	225	1826	1671	1469	1668	1558	1337	909	1871	1182	1255	2258	2006	1176	1345	1784	1741	645	1395	1728	1240	1447	1237	1605	1372	454	619	97	296	186	35	463	499	223	66	886	534	239	354	768	369	727	23	356	142	75	168	229	43	1415	411	571	54	253	143	78	506	456	266	159	843	461	392	397	811	326	770	20	313	185	32	211	186	626	669	2841	440	640	586	610	560	704	1132	170	892	735	580	360	1167	905	910	300	1396	692	590	811	608	837	440	1726	1100	1057	315	1511	1470	1154	1324	1286	1032	594	1556	867	940	1943	1591	861	1030	1310	1416	330	1080	1413	925	1131	922	1286	220	1506	880	937	535	1291	1250	934	1104	1066	792	374	1336	647	720	1723	1371	641	810	1090	1196	110	860	1193	705	911	702	1066	534	754	972	346	303	1069	757	602	400	599	489	268	160	802	113	186	1189	837	167	391	715	672	424	326	659	171	378	168	532	174	708	928	885	259	166	1243	670	619	313	512	402	110	334	665	92	100	1015	750	84	283	633	597	598	189	584	80	291	86	445